FAMILIES WITH AGGRESSIVE CHILDREN

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ERATUM

Spelling error corrections apply to the following pages: 4-populations, 55-residual, 123-children, 205-underrate, 248-opportunities, 254-provide, 283-likelihood, 350-alleviated, 256-children, 256-dissatisfaction.

PAGE 4 "table 2.1" should be corrected to "table 1.1."

12 Erase printing error "88"" from line three.

107 Remove "onto" from line ten.

144 In table 3.4 S.E. values of "0.747" and "0.537" should be corrected to "0.074" and "0.054".

145 Correlations "0.64" and"0.44" should be corrected to "0.06" and "0.04".

177 Table 5.1 should be amended to include the following standard deviations: Group A- 3.12, 2.94, 3.51, 4.45, 4.16, 4.32. Group B- 2.46, 2.44, 4.10, 4.20, 4.36, 3.61.

180 Table 5.5 should be amended to include the following S.E. values: Husbands- 0.084, 0.039, 0.061, 0.065, 0.064, 0.062, 0.116, 0.063, 0.066, 0.071, 0.098. Wives- 0.088, 0.077, 0.054, 0.012, 0.075, 0.081, 0.075, 0.158, 0.126, 0.077, 0.079.

250 "19700" should be corrected to "1970".

265 Section 2 "yes" for Housewives should be corrected to "no".

268 Table 7.2- section "IRA-D" is entered twice. The second occasion should be altered to "IRA-E".

269 Table 7.4 zero-order correlations are incorrect.They should all be replaced by the following values: 0.54, 0.41, 0.36, 0.55, 0.12, -0.01, 0.24, -0.18.

311 Table 8.4 correlation of 2.648 should be corrected to 0.27.

337 Line 22 "argues against" should be corrected to "argues for".

363 Line 20 "---as significant correlations were at about chance level" should be corrected to "---as the number of significant correlations was at about chance level".

Acknowledgements

Over the time taken to complete this thesis many people became crucial to me as academic, technical, and personal supports which helped me through the many times of questioning the wisdom of continuing on the path of study I had chosen. Their efforts are imprinted on every page yet only here can I briefly acknowledge their contributions.

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"Thanks Maddy, I love you dearly".

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SUMMARY

A major aim of this thesis was to contrast, within a laboratory setting, the family systems of two potentially different groups of people; those families with an aggressive 8-12 year old child in their midst about whom there was some parental concern, and those families with a highly-socialized 8-12 year old in their midst. The aim was to study the relationships within those families with the emphasis broader than simply focussing on the relationship between target child and significant others. Equal status was given to all within-family relationships. An attempt was made to both gather information on as many within - family relationships as possible and to overcome some of the pitfalls which cast doubt on the ecological validity of some earlier studies.

The author has taken the perspective that if the current status of a family is to be understood then we must have some understanding of the perceptions family members hold of each other as well as the behaviours they choose to practice in each others' company. It is also held that the current status of a family is influenced by their relationship with the supports embedded in the community around them: work, leisure, extended family as examples.

To begin with, an assessment of parents' perceptions of family relationships was carried out on both family groups, recruited from schools and helping organizations around Christchurch. A modification of Kelly's (1955)

Repertory Grid called the Dyad Grid (Ryle, 1970) was utilised without adopting Kelly's Construct Theory. Findings indicated that parents of aggressive children found more difficulty with conflict resolution and reduced their emotional support for problem offspring. Mothers of those children also reported most feelings of hurt and signs of stress. All adult groups viewed fathers as functioning periphally in family relationships.

The relationships between the parents is a variable frequently mentioned in the literature on distressed and non-distressed families. An attempt was made to relate family perceptions to relationship satisfaction by grouping constructs from the grids into coercively and co-operatively associated constructs and by using the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Test to measure relationship satisfaction. All parent groups reported satisfactory marital adjustment. However, parents of aggressive children reported a lower level of marital adjustment, lower inter-spousal and inter-familial co-operation (especially from husbands to wives) and higher use of coercion.

The perceptions of the children were measured by using the Dyad Grid (Ryle, 1970) with the same INGRID and DELTA analyses (Slater, 1972) and same grouping of constructs as used with their parents. Compared to their parents' perceptions, aggressive children reported more parent-child co-operation, and their nearest-age siblings reported more parent-child coercion. These findings suggested that

aggressive children may not be as much at risk from emotional isolation from their parents who may, in turn, perceive other family relationships more positively, but inaccurately. All children were aware of co-operative and coercive processes associated with relationships involving their fathers. Surprisingly, highly-socialized children described much awareness of intra-familial coercion reminding us that even the best of families can still be intimate battlegrounds.

One of the potentially most interesting sections is that dealing with the supports available to each family group. Topics like stress and depression are currently being actively investigated in the context of their relation to family circumstances and perceptions (Wahler and Dumas, 1981; Belsky, 1984; Middlebrook and Forehand, 1985) but little definitive evidence is available to relate various kinds of support to different family types. So this section was largely exploratory. The area of supports and family types is very likely to be one where much exciting investigation occurs over the next few years. Findings suggested that parents of aggressive children, particularly mothers, tended to prefer separate leisure activities and to be less satisfied with their supports. These findings gave some support to those authors indicating links between parenting styles and isolation from supports.

The final empirical section of this study looked at the behaviours demonstrated by family members to each other and attempted to relate those findings to those from the

studies of perceptions, in an attempt to find the best predictors of intra-family behaviour. Families with aggressive children showed consistent trends to use and reciprocate more coercion over time. Their parents demonstrated greater involvement within their families' problem-solving interactions, but those involvements appeared to be neither contingent upon nor more effective in managing their childrens' behaviours. Consistently, behaviours were the best predictors of coercion in aggressive children and their parents, whereas behaviours plus perceptions were the best predictors of coercion from highly-socialized children and their mothers. It is suggested that perceptions may be a crucial mediating variable which reduces the likelihood of families being involved in recurring coercive cycles.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY OF FAMILIES WITH AGGRESSIVE CHILDREN.

The word "family" conjures up certain images for most of us. These frequently include a loving husband and wife and their children who live together in a single dwelling. Traditionally, the family is an economically independent unit with the husband being at least the major provider, while the wife's chief responsibilities include care of the household and children. The image also includes the family engaged in mutual support and problem solving, and the parents meeting each others sexual needs. It is also expected that this relationship will continue until death "doth them part".

So why spend much time, money and effort in studying families in face of such an idyllic picture? Simply because the image is a model of how people believe families should be, not as they actually are. Slater (1968) pointed out that spouses are now asked to be lovers, friends and mutual therapists, in a society which is forcing the marriage bond to become the closest, deepest, most important and most enduring relationship of one's life. Paradoxically, then, it is increasingly likely to fall short of the emotional demands placed upon it and be dissolved. In fact, Swain (1979) indicated that by 1976 41.4% of all private households in New Zealand involved in some sort of

alternative to the traditional nuclear family and that the proportion was growing.

Sex role expectations are being re-defined. Husbands are no longer seen as being solely responsible for economic support, nor are wives solely responsible for housework and child rearing. Certainly men still dominate in political, cultural, educational and economic institutions and typically have greater freedom of movement within marriage (Burgess, 1981). However, there are costs. Men are more vulnerable to stress; they have more heart attacks and ulcers, and die earlier than women. They commit more serious crimes, abuse drugs and alcohol more and are more likely to commit suicide. Interestingly, according to Bernard (1973) most of these problems tend to be alleviated by marriage. Thus married men when compared to single men have superior mental health, lower suicide rates, greater career prospects and longer lives.

For women the effects of marriage are opposite to those of men. Married women when compared to single women have more neurotic symptoms; they are more depressed, more fearful and anxious, have lower self-esteem and are less happy. According to Bernard (1973) they also tend to be less satisfied than their husbands with their marriages, to consider separation and divorce more often, to regret their marriage, and fewer report positive companionship.

So the reality of marriage and family can be closer to an intimate battleground. Goode (1971) maintains that violence and physical force are among the major resources

used to achieve desired ends in families. Stark and McEvoy (1970) found approximately 25% of men and 18% of women felt it was acceptable to slap one's spouse under certain conditions. Levinger (1966) found 23% of middle-class couples and 40% of working-class couples gave physical abuse as a reason for divorce. Straus, Gelles and Steinmetz (1980), in an American national probability sample, found approximately 50% of families reported at least one incident of husband - wife physical violence and 23% reported a minimum of one violent act during the survey year. Gelles (1979) estimated that repeated and serious violence occurs within 4% of American families. A New Zealand study by Synergy Applied Research (1983) found refuges to shelter some 1300 battered women. The New Zealand Police respond to over 12,000 domestic dispute calls per year. Dobash and Dobash (1980) in an analysis of British Police files found that in the case of domestic violence, typically women were attacked in some 96% of recorded assaults. According to Singer (1971) 22% of U.S.A. police deaths and 40% of their wounds result from attempts to intercede in domestic quarrels.

It isn't surprising then that many marriages and families fail. Weed (1980) notes that for each of the annual marriage cohorts in the United States from 1963 to 1966, approximately 30% of the original marriages had ended in divorce by 1977. He estimated that at least half of the 1973 cohort will end in divorce. New Zealand data suggests the rate of divorce is less here than in the United States.

Swain (1979) reports that after 27 years some 9.5% of the 1946 marriage cohort was divorced. O'Neill (1977) reported on more recent New Zealand cohorts followed for shorter periods of time and found a similar pattern around the 10% mark for divorces.

SEE ERRATA Table 2.1 gives a comparison of average crude divorce rates for several industrialized countries including New Zealand. The period after World War II was one of high divorce rates, as usually happens after a war. After a lull in the 1950's divorce rates increased up to unprecedented levels. The mean rate for all 18 countries was around 40% of the United States rate throughout the whole period. One observation possible from Table 2.1 is that, with respect to divorce, where the United States goes, so goes the rest of the industrial world some 20 years later.

Reasons for divorce are varied, and experiencing divorce is a major crisis for most people. Gurin, Keroff and Feld (1960) found 25% of divorced men and 40% of divorced women seek some form of professional help for personal problems. Considering marital disruption as a stressor, Bloom, Asher and White (1978) found maritally seperated or divorced individuals to be consistently over-represented in psychiatric population. Other studies have found those groups to double the accident rate in the months either side of divorce (McMurray, 1970), to have higher prevalency rates of alcoholism (Wechsler, Thum, Demone and Dwinnell, 1972), to have higher rates of illness and disability (National Center for Health Statistics,

Table 1.1. Average crude divorce rates per half decade in 18 industrialized countries, 1945-49 to 1975-79.

Country	1945-49	50-54	55-59	60-64	65-69	70-74	75-79
Canada	.53	.39	.38	.39	.66	1.58	2.31
United States	3.35	2.47	2.23	2.26	2.74	4.04	5.08
Austria	1.68	1.42	1.21	1.14	1.25	1.36	1.49
Belgium	.67	.50	.49	.53	.62	.82	1.29
Czechoslavkia	.89	.97	1.11	1.19	1.46	1.92	2.15
France	1.09	.73	.70	.66	.74	.90	1.27
West Germany	1.61	1.13	.83	.85	1.06	1.40	1.05
Netherlands	.80	.57	.49	.49	.60	1.11	1.54
Norway	.68	.65	.60	.67	.76	1.07	1.47
Sweden	1.03	1.17	1.19	1.17	1.37	2.10	2.62
Switzerland	.91	.90	.87	.84	.89	1.18	1.56
England and Wales	.83	.68	.54	.61	.88	1.84	2.63
Australia	.97	.84	.70	.67	.84	1.15	3.17
New Zealand	1.13	.79	.69	.72	.82	1.23	1.72
Denmark	1.66	1.54	1.46	1.40	1.52	2.48	2.60
Japan	1.01	.93	.81	.74	.84	1.00	1.13
East Germany	2.05	1.81	1.29	1.40	1.65	1.63	2.59
Soviet Union	.25	.40	.90	1.34	2.47	2.71	3.35
Mean	1.17	.99	.92	.95	1.18	1.64	2.17

Source: United Nations "Demographic Yearbook", 1968, 1969, 1979, and reports on particular countries. Quoted in "Bulletin of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences", May 1983, 36, 8, 34-35.

1976b), to be over-represented in death by suicide and homicide (Kitagawa and Hauser, 1973) and to have higher mortality rates from specific diseases (National Center for Health Statistics, 1970a) such as diabetes and heart disease (Kobrin and Hendershot, 1977).

According to Campbell (1975) the effects of divorce are even harder on women than men. Seventy-one per cent of them must work, and 84% care for the children without the moral, economic and psychological support of a partner. They earn less than other women their age and certainly less than divorced men. As a result, Campbell found divorced women to feel greatest pressure and stress of the groups he contrasted, to report greatest dissatisfaction with their lives and to describe the emotional quality of their lives in gloomier terms. Hetherington (1979) has found, unsurprisingly, that children find the transition from a two-parent to a single-parent household painful. Common responses are anger, fear, depression and guilt. The aftermath of divorce frequently results in increase of social discord in family relationships for the first year.

Even when the picture looks rosier and divorced people remarry the findings of Weed (1980) suggest that all is not a bed of roses. Remarriages were found to have a slightly higher probability of ending in divorce than first marriages, although the difference was found to decline rapidly for marriages and remarriages of fifteen years duration or more. According to age-specific divorce rates for 1975 in the United States (1975) 30.4% of first

marriages and 38.5% of remarriages ended in divorce within 10 years (Davis, 1974).

Through all of these conflicts the family remains the major influence which shapes the developing social skills of the next generation of adults. The maintenance of a close and happy relationship with another person is only possible if both partners have acquired a number of important social skills. In families where the parents have those skills, it seems reasonable to assume that the children will acquire them also, whereas the children who have parents lacking these skills are likely to develop into adults lacking the skills their parents lacked. A growing body of research supports this view. As early as 1938, Terman reported that husbands and wives with successful marriages were more likely to have come from families where they had experienced happy childhoods than were husbands and wives with unsuccessful marriages. Conversely, couples in discordant and unhappy marriages tend more often to have been raised by parents who themselves had discordant and unhappy marriages than is the case with happily married couples (Hay, Blampied, Church and Priest, 1981). Also violent husbands are much more likely to have been brought up in families where the father was violent than are happily married husbands. (Rosenbaum and O'Leary, 1981). The suggestion here is that patterns of behaviour which lead to marriage and family breakdown tend to be transmitted by one generation of parents to the next.

Any of these observations provide sufficient

justification for ongoing research into family processes, especially those processes leading to marriage and family breakdown. Taken together, these observations suggest that research into family processes should be accorded highest priority.

1. But why families with aggressive children?

In this study the term "aggressive children" is used to describe children who use coercive processes to obtain behaviour changes from others around them to such an extent that it is perceived by at least one teacher and one parent as a major problem in both home and school settings. Coercive processes which such children may utilize can range across non-compliance, arrested socialization and skill deficits. Non-compliance will be at a level not seen as commensurate with age-appropriate expectations (Patterson, 1982; Griest, Wells and Forehand, 1979) and may include shouting, yelling, abusing, hitting, throwing, damaging, intimidating, whining, demanding, blaming and crying as regular means of obtaining behavioural changes in others. Numerous studies have confirmed that aggressive children are significantly less compliant than normal children (Lobitz and Johnson, 1975(a); Forehand, King, Peed and Yoder, 1975) and commit more assaultive acts than normal children (Loeber, Weissman and Reid, 1983; Simard, 1981; Wahler and Dumas, 1983a). Aggressive children tend to function like overgrown infants attempting to maximize short term pay-offs while ignoring long term costs

(Patterson, 1974a). Several studies suggest coercion reduces with age but that aggressive children do not follow this pattern. Thus the aggressive 10-11 year old may perform at a level of coercion normal in 2-4 year olds (Patterson, 1974(a); 1982). Their social skills are likely to be, but not necessarily, inept. They may reject approaches and praise of others, have difficulty greeting and maintaining eye contact with others, find difficulty in conversing, honouring commitments and behaving sympathetically. They may become caught up in the impulses of the moment and have little exercised control over their responses (Meichenbaum, 1979; Riddle and Roberts, 1977). Specific work skills deficits may be reflected by disruption through non-attendance and non-compliance (Cobb, 1970). The aggressive child may disturb the work efforts of others by use of inappropriate sounds and movements. Others may be interrupted or annoyed by these children and may in turn reject the aggressive child (Achenbach, 1976; Gottman, 1977). The combinations of non-compliance, arrested socialization and deficient work skills are what are seen by the author as leaving these children at risk in their future development. The effects of coercive cycles, social and emotional isolation from peers and family and the reduced likelihood of possessing tradeable skills in the future job markets may serve to further compound their life-adjustment problems.

Numerous studies have shown that children with various kinds of behavioural problems tend to come from homes that

are disadvantaged or deviant in some respects (Hinde, 1980; Rutter, 1981a, 1982, 1984a; Rutter and Giller, 1983). Disruptions or omissions in parents' application of family management practices have consistently been found to correlate with childrens' antisocial behaviour (West and Farrington, 1973; Rutter, Tizard and Whitmore, 1970; Patterson and Stouthamer, 1984). Patterson (1982) indicated that clinical experience in treating families of aggressive children suggested that parents of these children were deficient in the practice of several interrelated skills: monitoring their childrens' whereabouts, using effective discipline for antisocial behaviours, employing effective problem-solving skills and supporting the development of prosocial skills.

Even though a review of findings from longitudinal studies showed family management variables to be the best predictors of later delinquency (Loeber and Dishion, 1983) the amount of variance accounted for is not always large. Multivariate studies such as that by McCord (1979) have found that 26% of the variance in predicting later delinquency could be explained on the basis of child-rearing variables. Other correlative studies account for only moderate amounts of variance as predictors for later delinquency (West and Farrington, 1977; Wilson, 1980). Measurement problems may be a cause for the limited contributions of these variables as most studies that have linked family management variables to development have used a single contact with a single family member (Patterson and

Stouthamer-Loeber, 1984) and questions are raised concerning the generalizability of such data.

Rutter (1985) raised the issue of timing in respect to the association of aggression with family variables. Does family discord cause children to develop behavioural problems or does the presence of difficult children in the family lead to more discord? Similarly the question is asked of inconsistent punishment and aggressive children: "Which comes first?" Rutter suggests that there is room for accepting that either the familial treatment or the aggressive child can occur first. Some family variables could not have been caused by aggressive children; birth order, sex of siblings are examples. In other cases family factors have antedated a child's disturbed behaviour and so make clearer the path of causation; parent criminality, mental disorder, marital discord being examples. However, there is also a growing body of literature related to child effects on adult behaviour. Gardner (1977) showed experimentally that autistic children elicit different patterns of interactions from the adults with whom they were placed. Bell (1968) re-evaluated much research and concluded that much evidence of parent effects on children could equally be viewed as examples of child effects on parents. Since then a growing body of literature indicates the substance of important child effects (Lerner and Spanier, 1978; Lewis and Rosenblum. 1974; Maccoby and Martin, 1983; Bell and Harper, 1977).

There is no easy way to resolve the dilemma posed

above and often there has to be a reliance on an interpretation of overall patterns to determine which causal process is most likely.

Other writers have moved away from social - interactional effects and have questioned genetic transmission, so the picture is further complicated. Two studies by McGuffin and Gottesman (1984) and Shields (1981) indicated that in no case is the genetic determination of psychological attributes so strong that there is no room for environmental effects. Rutter and Giller (1983) also point out that hereditary estimates are also useful in showing differences between attributes and the extent of the environmental contribution to those attributes. They concluded that while environmental factors predominate in the case of juvenile delinquency, genetic factors play some part. Hereditary influence may be more influential in the case of criminal behaviour that is associated with personality disturbances which persist from childhood into adult years.

Family resemblances, however, can also be good indicators of the extent to which environmental influences operate within or between families (Rowe and Plomin, 1981). If children in the same family tend to be similar in their characteristics the implication is that they share the most important environmental influences and that the crucial factors are likely to be those influencing the family as a whole. In conduct disorders and juvenile delinquency there is a tendency for several family children to show similar

behaviours. The expectation from this finding is that families of delinquents are likely to differ from families88 SEE ERRATA of non-delinquents. The available evidence indicates that such differences exist (Rutter, 1985; Patterson, 1982).

When brothers and sisters tend to be dissimilar in their attributes there is the suggestion that environmental influences have impinged differently on family members. That is suggested to be the case with personality features and emotional disturbance (Loehlin and Nichols, 1976, Scarr, Webber, Weinberger and Wittig, 1981). Researchers suggest that important factors include ordinal position, differential treatment by parents, stresses specific to the individual, or extra-familial influences. But systematic differences between families according to the personality characteristics of the children appear not to be expected. Various other works suggest that heritability data not only provide some estimate of the overall importance of family influences as determinants of individual differences under the environmental conditions studied, but also provide pointers to the likelihood that such influences operate in much the same way on all children in the family. The findings suggest that they do so to a substantial degree with conduct disorders but not usually so with emotional disturbances and personality features (Rutter, 1985).

When children are compared from similar biological background but not reared by their biological parents the findings suggest that adopted children have a better

outcome than those who stay with their biological parents when the biological background is seriously disturbed or disadvantaged (Bohman and Sigvardssonn, 1980; Scarr, 1981; Rutter and Madge, 1976; Rutter and Giller, 1983; Scarr and Weinberg, 1983). Genetic factors still play important roles in determining individual differences in behaviour and attainment, but, if experienced, the superior environment of the adoptive homes seemed to result in a general raising of the outcome for adopted children as a whole.

Further evidence of the influence of environmental effects can be studied through the consequences of changes in the environment. West (1982) gives evidence for the importance of the social group in his study of delinquent London boys. Delinquency diminished following moves outside of London. These changes were not explicable in terms of the boys' or families' measured prior characteristics. The findings suggested that these boys' delinquency was influenced by their social group. Rutter (1971) investigated children separated from their families as a result of family problems. A cessation of open discord was associated with marked reductions in the risk of conduct disorders. Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1980) and Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) found that whether or not disorders in children of divorcing parents diminished was a function of whether or not the divorce improved family relationships. When divorce brought harmony, childrens' problems tended to improve. When parental discord continued so did the childrens' disturbed behaviour. Rutter and Giller (1983)

also supported findings that environmental effects are associated with changes in the quality of family relationships. However, caution is warranted here because in some circumstances childrens' disturbed behaviour has acquired almost self-perpetuating qualities that cause it to persist and to resist alterations in family circumstances (Quinton and Rutter, 1984b; Richman, Stevenson and Graham, 1982).

To further disentangle the genetic-environmental effects argument Rutter has carried out several studies into the effects of non-familial environments. A substantial body of literature relates the characteristics of institutions to behaviour differences in children. Rutter and Giller (1983) have shown large differences in delinquent absconding and reconviction rates depending on institutional characteristics. More successful institutions were characterised by combinations of firmness, warmth, harmony, high expectations, good discipline and a practical approach to training. Rutter (1983b) found secondary schools to vary greatly in a host of different measures of pupil success. Differences in outcome were systematically associated with the qualities of the schools as social organizations.

While there is no question of genetic transfer in institutional studies, the argument for a strong environmental effect is supported by the evidence of covariation in institution characteristics and child behaviour. Of course the direction of causality is not

resolved. Did the children shape the institutions with their behaviour or did the institutions shape the childrens' behaviour?

As stated earlier there is no easy way out of the dilemma of direction of causality. But sufficient evidence has been presented to support the case for an important social-interactional component in the determinants of behaviour. One area where the distinctions have become blurred is where a family has a conduct disordered child, family discord, poor parental supervision, inefficient discipline and perhaps several children showing disturbed behaviour. As noted earlier genetic factors appear not to play a major role in behaviour disorders. Consequently no ready explanation exists of why so many of the children in such families show problems, if say, the greatest deterioration in family discord stemmed from the behaviour of the children. Several studies have shown that parents who experienced severe adversities in their own childhoods were most likely to find greatest parenting problems (Quinton and Rutter, 1984b; Kruk and Wolkind, 1982; Wolkind and Kruk, 1984). Other studies offer limited evidence that characteristics of parents assessed prior to their childrens' birth, predict aspects of parental behaviour (Maccoby and Martin, 1983). So again evidence exists to support social-interactional effects as a major variable influencing behaviour. Further, the major source of social-interactional effects for children are the families within which they grow to adulthood. All these findings

supply justification for studying families with aggressive children.

2. Problems of severity of aggression.

While different lines of research indicate that aggression in some children is indicative of family and individual pathology, aggression is noted in normal children also. Patterson (1976) reported rates of 0.02 to 0.50 coercive behaviours per hour in otherwise normal families and 11-40 verbal and physical attacks per session in regular nursery school classes.

Developmental literature suggests that some forms of aggressive behaviour are found within the repertoire of acceptable problem-solving behaviours of young children. Stein, Freiedrichs and Vondracek (1972) found rates of aggression and pro-social behaviour to be correlated in pre-schoolers, suggesting that learning to protect oneself from the uncontrolled desires of peers by delivering sufficient aggression to be unappealing as a victim is an appropriate skill to learn for that age group. By late childhood, children are often quite proficient in the use of reasoning and exhortation (Cohen, 1977), so that the use of physical aggression decreases with age (Patterson, 1982). However, for some aggression is maintained and the question arises as to whether aggression in those children is indicative of underlying psychopathology and whether it is due to constitutional, environmental or combined effects.

Frankel and Simmons (1985) attempted to differentiate out from others the aggressive child who fails to undergo the earlier "appropriate" form of aggression and whose aggression is qualitatively different from other children. They claim that such children are more at risk than those whose aggression changes developmentally. Frankel and Simmons consider that such aggression represents the end result of a combination of constitutional differences and stressful events rather than adaptive reactions to immediate circumstances. Achenbach and Edelbrock (1978) employing normative studies suggest that the delineation of pathology should be at the cut-off point on scales which place a child two standard deviations from the mean of his or her peers. Several studies suggest that this group improve less and remain in treatment for shorter periods of time (Achenbach and Lewis, 1971), have relatively poor prognosis (Hafner, Quast and Shea, 1975) and show a lack of developmental effects over a ten year period (Olweus, 1979).

3. "Normal" or "Healthy" families as a form of comparison.

One would suppose, somewhat reasonably, that part of the attention paid to dysfunctional families and children with problems of aggression would be as a result of their contrasted and recognised differences from healthy families. The reality is that there is a paucity of both theoretical and empirical data on healthy families. Much of the focus in the mental health literature has been on

pathology and the disturbed family, making it difficult for the clinical practitioner to formulate therapeutic goals based on clear and definite concepts of good family health when working with clients.

Parsons and Bales (1955) from their historico - sociological perspective saw the family as becoming more specialised and losing some of its earlier functions such as provision of formal education and job opportunities for its members. In spite of these changes they claim there are two basic and irreducible functions of the family. Firstly, the primary socialization of its offspring so that they become members of the society into which they were born. Secondly, the stabilization of adult personalities, primarily through the marital relationship and the family built around it. The Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry (1970) redefined the latter family function as "the legitimization of parents through reproduction". Morgan (1978) described the family as a teaching and support structure through which members learn who and what they are. The family provides an opportunity to develop a sense of self as autonomous at the same time as belonging to and being able to depend on the other members. The family, therefore, creates its own arena, a system wherein all its members can learn, grow and eventually depart. Beavers (1972) noted two important features of family systems; a sense of time-binding, where togetherness develops; and the development of enduring myths about the family system which support its members' separation from

the rest of society and bind them together.

An immediate concern in comparisons of such variables as mentioned above is the clarification of the control group, usually called normal or healthy. Gantman (1980) noted the different usage of the terms. The statistical approach uses the mode or average as the criterion for normality. A clinical definition (as used in pure science) is based on absolute, universal standards. A third approach utilizes the ideal as the criterion so that normality is approached but never fully realized. Rinder (1964) indicates the problem is not merely a question of what is normal but rather "normal for what". Is a family healthy or normal because the individual members are considered to be functioning adequately or are there criteria of health which focus on the family as an entire unit? The problem becomes difficult when faced with the reality of a disturbed child coming from what appears to be an intact family catering adequately for its members needs. Then again there is sometimes observed a family interacting in a "pathological" manner and yet its offspring appear at least adequate in their functioning. Are these invulnerable children a part of normal families? Gantman (1980) argues that adopting definitions based solely on the functioning of offspring may include families in which one or other parent has been labelled psychotic. The utility of a definition which only accounts for the functioning level of the individual members may not be inclusive enough for the purpose of exploring the general characteristics of

successful, or ideal, families. Gantman argues further that an application of systems theory is required which would emphasize the process by which families operate as an entire unit and where the individual would not be the focus.

Reviewing literature on normal and healthy families brings some frustration because of the paucity of available studies, the lack of consensus on both the modern family's tasks and on what constitutes good family health. As mentioned earlier, much effort has gone into the study of pathological families, from which health is termed post hoc as an absence of overt disturbance in the individual family members (Barnhill, 1979).

Earlier writings, influenced by group theorists, contended that healthy families needed to maintain a status quo and operate democratically. However, it later became evident that with the egalitarian model for families, no-one took leadership roles, little was accomplished and minimal satisfaction occurred for family members. Beavers (1972) described Bateson's contention that the family system needed to be fluid and responsive to return a balanced state. However, that homeostatic system as defined by Bateson implied resistance to change and a rigid conformity to the status quo. Freeman (1976) pointed out that homeostasis produced stagnation and disturbance. More latterly a more accepted model for health has included concepts of a clear, well defined family structure with opportunities for change (Beavers, 1972; Lewis, Beavers,

Gossett and Phillips, 1976). Families are optimally conceived of as highly flexible systems which respond spontaneously and are open to change and growth. Structure exists but it is subordinate to function or process. Minuchin, Rossman and Baker (1978) have identified several subsystems as part of the Western family: The spousal subsystem to provide the model for male-female relationships; parental subsystem to focus on child-rearing and the sibling subsystem which is peer oriented. The blurring of boundaries between individuals and subsystems has come to imply disturbance.

Within the literature there is a consensual validation of the father as the accepted leader and the most powerful member of the normal family (Schuham, 1972; Gantman, 1980). Previously fathers' roles were seen as more instrumental whereas the mother was seen as the affective leader of the family. However, with current societal pressure towards changing roles, child care and divorce some writers have suggested that there may be a trend towards androgenous parental functioning independent of gender, thereby reducing the division into traditional sex roles.

Mischler and Waxler (1968) stated that the power structure within a family which functions well is not stable or fixed, and that power should be relinquished as children advance through developmental stages. In Beaver's (1972) words, "the family structure is made to be destroyed as it alters, but on the bases of generational differences is never fully eradicated."

Gantman's survey concerned with family communication concluded that communication should be clear, abundant and direct. Family tasks are then completed co-operatively with individuals displaying responsiveness, respect and warmth towards each other. Overt expressions of affect both positive and negative, are valued in healthy families (Alexander, 1973a, 1973b). Differences can, therefore, be verbalized and conflict can occur within a supportive and tolerant family structure. Jacob (1975) pointed out that early assumptions on communication emphasized orderly and continuous speech patterns. Disruptions were associated with stress and tension. However, later data (Mischler and Waxler, 1968) indicated that the communication of healthy families was characterized by disruptions, pauses and repetitions which did not interfere with organized and purposeful activity. Numerous short speeches and frequent interruptions are seen now to introduce new ideas and allow the family to change and develop.

A further essential of the family that works well is its perception of reality and change over time. It is important that family myths are not too rigid and that they are highly congruent with reality (Beavers, 1972). As time passes, family members change and the system must accomodate the new demands. Eventually, this necessitates separation as children mature and encounter the broad environment. Perhaps the most demanding aspect of time's passage is the acceptance of the loss of family members. Beavers (1972) stated that such an acceptance lies at the

heart of all skills in the healthy family system.

4. Perspectives in the study of families.

Until comparatively recently the arrow in models of socialization pointed from parent to child. This was consistent with writers in relevant disciplines who defined socialization as a process through which adults prepared the young for life in an adult society (Clausen, 1968). Historical accounts of socialization and child-rearing portrayed families as groups in which the predominant influence was from parent to child (Aries, 1962; Bremner, 1970-1974; de Mause, 1968). Family roles arose from social and legal definitions that gave parents authority over their children and a responsibility to include community values and standards. Generational differences were emphasized; rights of children were not as well recognized. The view of the research community reflected that of other social institutions of society (Hess, 1981). In this context, classical conditioning studies on aggression, imitation and dependency arose (Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer and Sears, 1939; Miller and Dollard, 1941; Whiting 1941). Later, theories derived from Skinner's (1938) work on instrumental learning evolved over wide areas of development. Theories in the malleability of children (Etzel and Gerwitz, 1967) and work by Patterson and others during the 1970's on the linkages between accelerations and decelerations in family interaction as these are related to aggressive and coercive behaviours are examples of this

influence.

The results of such experimentation and theorizing are impressive and convincing. The child's social repertoire is subject to change. It is dependent both on the behaviour of the caretaker and on the nature of the family context. Bandura's recent formulation of "reciprocal determinism" is an attempt to replace what he described as unidirectional influence theories of earlier instrumental learning theorists. In a series of papers and debates with other researchers he expanded on his formulation (Bandura, 1974, 1977, 1978, 1981, 1983, 1984; Philips and Orton, 1983; Staddon, 1984). Bandura (1974, 1977) uses determinism to signify the production of effects by events, rather than in the doctrinal sense that actions are completely determined by a prior sequence of causes independent of the individual. He argues that people are not simply reactors to external stimulation and that the influences of such external stimulation will be mediated by cognitive processes. Thus behaviour, internal personal factors and environmental influences are claimed to operate as interlocking determinants of each other. Bandura (1978) argues that the relative influence of these three interlocking factors will vary across individuals and across situations.

Bandura, (1983) also argued that the traditional concept of reciprocity being almost immediate is in need of challenge. He argues that determinants can affect each other proximally or distantly but, whatever the time course

may be, they involve sequentiality of mutual influence. Confining analysis to a particular interactive segment can clarify some aspects of causal processes. However, it inevitably leaves unexplained some of the observed variance in events when other determinants in the environmental - personal factors-behaviour system make causal contributions. Thought can enhance, attenuate or nullify the proximal social effects of action according to Bandura. Hence people act as partial authors of their experiences and also of their own memories of their experiences. Some of the debate between Bandura and others has evolved around whether transactions with the environment create internal determinants unidirectionally or bidirectionally and whether human behaviour is regulated by stimulus inputs or regulated in part by cognitive processes. Consequently, researchers need to clarify how historical determinants operate by analysing how stimulus events are perceived, edited and coded for personal memory representation of those events, and then how they are acted upon to guide judgement and action.

Further pressure grew on the theories of socialization as Erikson (1950) and Sullivan (1953) argued for the recognition of mutual regulation in early mother-infant interaction and for conceptions of human development to incorporate the concept of "interacting dynamisms". Hinde (1976) concluded that the functions of animal behaviour cannot be understood without the use of interactional and social-structural concepts. So then, dominance, for

example, came to be conceived as an interaction in which one individual defeats another rather than characteristics which an individual carries around. Lamb (1976) claimed that in most everyday situations it is difficult to ignore the obvious ebb and flow of the behavioural stream in families as polyadic. Essential questions relating to behaviour management, child and family education, policy formulations, institutional care etc. all require bidirectional or multidirectional models of social development.

Personality theory also played its part in holding back on understanding of the bidirectionality of influence. In 1968 Mischel critically reviewed the evidence bearing on traditional personality measurement. He pointed out that traditionally personality psychology had dealt with behavioural observations as inferences about underlying structures, attributes and processes within the individual giving clues to the owner's personality. He further argued that personality assessment had simply acted on these proposals and set out to measure them. Both theory and assessment assumed that people have significant stable general characteristics - that is individual differences. Mischel's review of the evidence found no clearly stable cross-situational consistency in most personality measures. Having concluded that the evidence was against a trait approach Mischel suggested that behaviour is situationally specific. Bandura (1978) continued the attack, noting that nagging and persistent methodological problems, weak theory

and loose concepts bedevilled the field. Carson (1969) argued for an interpersonal theory of personality. He argued that in a family, for example, if each person's environment is also another persons then each person is surely the social environment of the other. When the parent rewards a child, the child's behaviour is also rewarding to the parent. The unit of study then became the behaviours between people i.e. their interaction.

Numerous writers followed on from the works of Bateson, Jackson, Haley and Weakland's (1956) "double bind" theory of schizophrenia, in which patients were asserted to receive incompatible messages from those around them. Laing (1960, 1961) called attention to the often bizarre and difficult interpersonal environments of such patients. Further summaries came from Watzlawick (1964) and Sluzki and Ransom (1976). The common approach here was that the principal influence on people is other people. Sullivan as far back as 1953 defined personality as "the relatively enduring pattern of interpersonal situations which characterize a human life." For Sullivan, personality was an illusion which could not be separated from interpersonal situations. An individual's behaviour was beginning to be seen as shaped by his/her interactions and communications with others close by. Communication and interaction became recognized as the process of the social environment that determines the behaviour of the people involved.

Hartup (1958) noted how socialization research gained a renewed interest around 1970 with an emphasis on social

adaptation. He pointed out that by the late 1970's the field was in a transition stage not knowing exactly how to formulate the right questions and not knowing exactly how to solve the methodological problems related to the fit of behaviour to particular environmental contexts. Hess (1981) described the emerging views of the family as being based on reciprocity and mutuality and noted that the family was being described as a system; each member having equal opportunity to influence other members. Complex methods of gathering data were required and numerous new paradigms of family exchange evolved from the reconceptualization of interaction. Hess commented that major problems existed in the conceptualization of interaction, and in the analysis of the massive amounts of data generated. Later, in 1984, Belsky suggested that three major areas of investigation existed in the etiology of why parents parent as they do. Firstly, the origins and personal psychological resources of the parents; secondly, the characteristics of the children; and thirdly, the contextual sources of stress and support open to the family. Belsky pointed out that the impetus of such conceptualization came from the area of abused children and that a major task was to determine what influences these functions played in a wider range of families.

It is also argued by Kulka (1979) and others (French, Rogers and Cobb, 1974) that a general theory of person - situation interaction must always incorporate concepts of objective and subjective reality. Measures need to be

taken, firstly of the objective environment which includes aspects of the physical and social world independently of individuals' perceptions of them. Secondly, the subjective environment must be known, with perceptions of and cognitions about aspects of the objective environment. Thirdly, measures of the objective person with objectively demonstrable characteristics, and fourthly, the subjective person with reported perceptions and cognitions of self and other characteristics also need to be included.

Caruso (1984) in a review of parent-child relationships concluded that the field has been circumscribed by the conceptualization of the interaction process. More emphasis is needed on the reciprocal nature of interaction with increased effort being to devoted to understanding the effects of external forces on the family interactions. Caruso argued that the future holds an integration of these perspectives along with the effects which parents have on children. The new model, it is argued, must include the reciprocal nature of interaction while integrating assessment of external factors.

5. External factors: stressors and supports.

Given that children and parents influence each other, the contexts of their relationships are also important. A growing body of literature exists to highlight the generally beneficial impact on families of social support (Mitchell and Trickett, 1980; Patterson and Reid, 1984; Cohen and Wills, 1985; Belsky, Lerner and Spanier, 1984).

Colletta (1979) surveying groups of mothers with pre-schoolers revealed that total support provided by relatives, friends and spouses was negatively associated with maternal restrictiveness and punitiveness. She concluded that those mothers receiving less support tended to have more household rules and to use the most authoritarian punishments. Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1980) also reported that single parents with support groups tended to be more effective parents during the divorce process than those without such help.

Social support appears positively related to parental functioning (Belsky, 1984). Transient emotional states such as fatigue, fear or anger produce shifts within interactions. Wahler and Afton (1980) reported that insular mothers with low income and poor education, experienced more day to day stress in their contacts with others and attributed more blame to children for coercive episodes. At the end of parent training courses they demonstrated significant improvement in parenting skills but continued to describe their children in global, blame oriented fashion. Wahler (1980) obtained similar results at follow-up to parenting programmes, noting the return to baseline levels on specific parenting skills. Wahler noted that friendship was an inverse predictor of mother-child coercive problems. On days marked by high proportions of friend contacts, mother-child problems were lower in frequency than on days marked by low proportions of friend contacts. This was taken to suggest that mothers'

extra-familial social contacts may influence their child interactional patterns at home. Wahler suggested that if those insular mothers could be assisted to alter their community interactions in the direction of more friendship relationships such a change may support more positive interchanges between mothers and their children.

Insular mothers were also highly selective in their reports of stress (Wahler and Dumas, 1983a). The mothers cited encounters with their oppositional children but excluded similar encounters with spouses, boyfriends and helping agencies. They were also far more likely to have longer coercive exchanges with their children than were non-insular mothers (Wahler, Hughey and Gordon, 1981) and to be more indiscriminate in their use of aversive consequences (Dumas and Wahler, 1985). Non-insular dyads terminated coercive exchanges within 50 seconds, whereas 30% of insular dyads continued up to 120 seconds of coercive exchanges. Reasons for this are unclear. It may be that the functioning of a mother operating within an environment in which she is subjected to multiple aversive social inputs is qualitatively different from that of a mother whose aversive social inputs are generally limited to her child relationship. While non-insular mothers commonly report that they attend and respond to the behavioural cues presented by their children, they may in fact often attend and respond to a broader pattern of cues that include cues provided by other social agents and settings (Wahler and Dumas, 1983a; Wahler and Graves,

1983). Patterson (1982) in a study of several hundred families found that mothers reporting more frequent and severe family stress were observed to be more irritable in their reactions to family members. These irritable reactions were found to covary with child rearing patterns, and that in turn, covaried with measures of antisocial child behaviour.

Middlebrook and Forehand (1985) found that mothers of ten clinic-referred children rated vignettes of neutral child behaviour as more deviant in situations that were more stressful than in those that were less stressful. Middlebrook and Forehand concluded if child behaviour is clearly defined then stress levels play less of a part in parent evaluations of their children. In situations where stress is higher the parent has insufficient evidence to make clear judgements, and the ambiguity decreases the parents' efficiency in evaluating, leading to negative evaluations.

Extensive amounts of literature exist to relate social support and general well-being (Cohen and Wills, 1985; Mitchell and Trickett, 1980), so it is hardly surprising to find that parenting should also be linked to social support. It is important to identify the mechanisms through which that support facilitates better parenting. Belsky (1984) suggests that social support functions by providing emotional and instrumental support and by providing social expectations. Emotional support can be defined as the love and interpersonal acceptance we receive from others, either

through explicit statements, or as a result of considerate and caring actions. Instrumental assistance may range across the provision of information, advice, help with routine care, finances and child care. Social expectations serve as a guide to what is and what is not appropriate behaviour. The latter appears to act as a support when the expectations are inconsistent or contrary to our own (Lamb and Easterbrooks, 1980; Stolz, 1967). Power and Parke (1983) for instance, reported that career women who interacted mainly with women of more traditional sex role orientation generally reported less satisfaction in the parenting role than women whose social relationships shared their own views.

Each type of support can function to influence parenting both directly and indirectly (Belsky, Robins and Gamble, 1975). Direct effects are those that are targetted at parental behaviour, whereas indirect effects are mediated by other factors. An assumption here is that, when, for example, a husband lets his partner know she is loved, such a positive sentiment, while not targetted at parenting will affect care - giving positively because of its emotional support.

Numerous writers have suggested that the major supports for parents are their marital relationship (Belsky, 1981; Pedersen, 1982); their social network, given that it provides a match between the support desired and the support received (French, Rodgers and Cobb, 1974) from friends, neighbours and extended family; and their work

status and integration (Bronfenbrenner and Crouter, 1983; Kohn, 1963).

Some uncertainty exists as to which of the major sources of support are of the greatest importance. Cohen and Wills (1985) offer evidence to suggest that supports have both overall beneficial effects amd an ability to protect us from specific pathogenic effects of stressful events. If individuals are well integrated into their social network, and that network is responsive to their needs during times of stress, then specific protection or "buffering" occurs from the worst effects of stressful events. General embeddedness in a social network without flexible responsiveness will be beneficial but not necessarily helpful in the face of specific stressors. Further, Cohen and Wills argued that consistent findings for the buffering effect suggest that certain support resources act only in the presence of elevated stress levels. For example, having access to a friend to talk to about problems promotes wellbeing in the face of stress but not necessarily under non-stressful conditions. Cohen and Wills concluded that sex differences occurred with respect to effective buffers. Women derive satisfaction from talking with intimate friends about feelings and problems (Henderson, Byrne, Duncan-Jones, Scott and Adcock, 1981; Billings and Moos, 1981), whereas men derive more satisfaction from companionship activities and instrumental task accomplishment (Caldwell and Peplau, 1982).

Two important studies have recently addressed the

issue of the relative importance of marital support versus other kinds (Colletta, 1979; Crnic, Greenberg, Ragozin, Robinson and Basham, 1983). In Colletta's investigation of 50 adolescent mothers, the emotional assistance received from the family of origin was found to be the most predictive of maternal attitudes and affectionate behaviour. Support received from spouse or boyfriend was the next most important followed by friendship support. Results from the Crnic et al study of 105 mothers of four-month-old infants showed intimate spousal support to have the most important general effects, with community and friendship support also of significance. Crnic et al (1983) concluded with agreement for Belsky's (1981) stance, that positive marital support is a major support for competent parenting. Under some conditions marital support may be of less importance; Colletta's findings for teen-age mothers may be one of those areas.

However, assumptions of the primacy of marital relations as a source of both stress and support must remain speculative, for, as Belsky (1984) indicated, there appear to be no studies where each of the major areas of parent support are included. As a consequence it has remained impossible to test notions regarding the relative significance of each form of support.

6. The study of family perceptions.

The route for those involved in the study of self and other perceptions within the specific intra-familial

context has been a tortuous one. Little agreement has existed over which routes to take and types of data to collect. One consequence has been a tendency to reject the techniques of data collection which relied on self-report, ratings and other judgements about behaviour or inner states of mental activity in favour of recording observable events (Henderson, 1981). Researchers wanted to know what families did and not what they said they did. Much has been learned from the study of observable family interactions, but as concepts of family interaction move more towards a social-interactional perspective (Cairns, 1979a; Reid, Taplin and Lorber, 1981) the relationship between behaviour sequences and cognitions are increasingly being investigated. (Patterson and Reid, 1984).

The notion of family belief systems being worthy of theoretical and empirical exploration comes from several lines of work: that on mental constructs (Kelly, 1955, 1963), attributions (Weiner, 1979), perceptions of others (Schneider, Hastoffe and Ellsworth, 1979) among others. Individuals bring to specific situations beliefs about the nature of each other. Parents' perceptions of children can vary from child to child within the same family and while not necessarily explicit, such beliefs can give coherence to parents' behaviour. An example from McGillicuddy-De Lisi, Sigel and Johnson (1979) illustrates this point. To identify the origins of strategies parents use in disciplinary and problem-solving situations they contrasted the behaviour of two parents in response to a hypothetical

situation in which a child was throwing blocks around a room. One parent saw the child as a rational being who could be helped to understand the consequences of such behaviour. The other parent felt her child would not benefit from such a tactic and chose instead to distract the child. Neither parent chose punishment but their objection to it was based on different beliefs about the children. Patterson and Reid (1984) point out that path analysis has been used successfully to support the general idea that parental beliefs alter paents' interaction patterns with their children, which, in turn, affects childrens' cognitive competences.

Two recent studies by Lorber and Reid (Lorber, Littman and Reid, 1979; Lorber, Reid and Felton, 1982) further highlight the importance of parental perceptions. Subjects exposed to videotapes of aggressive child behaviour tended to rate as aggressive those behaviours judged by trained observers as neutral or positive. One assumption from this result is that parents sharing many aversive daily interactions with their children are more likely to be sensitized to aversive behaviours, usually label ambiguous behaviour as aversive, and to employ more coercive parenting techniques. In the study by Lorber, Reid and Felton (1982) mothers of antisocial children perceived more deviant behaviours in a video-tape than did mothers of normal boys. In home-based observations, it was noted that those mothers more likely to be over-inclusive in identifying coercive behaviour were also most likely to

react immediately and punitively to misbehaviour of their children. These findings are supported by the studies of abused children (Wahler, 1980; Holleran, Littman, Freund and Schmaling, 1982) and marital conflict (Gottman, 1979). Parents' attitudes and attributions and the manner in which they combine and label the ongoing behaviour of their children are probably shaped by the continuous day-to-day interchanges with their children. As such attitudes, habits and perceptual habits change, shifts occur in the interactions which pass between parents and children. Patterson and Reid (1984) suggest that these shifts act as feedback loops that may either escalate or de-escalate parent-child interaction problems.

We can conclude, then, that the ways in which individuals perceive a relationship have a crucial influence on its course. Relationships can be affected both by what actually happened and what participants perceive or believe has happened (Valins, 1966) and objective measures of what occurred within interactions need not be any more important as predictors of future events than subjective perceptions (Murstein, 1971). Similarly in evaluating their own relationships individuals may also be concerned about the view that others hold of them and the mutual satisfaction gained from the relationship (Hinde, 1981). The cognitive structure so built up becomes a storehouse of past experiences which in turn provides a guide to future experiences (La Gaipa, 1981). Tisak (1986) in a study of childrens' conceptions of parental authority assessed 6 -

12 year olds' perceptions of the boundaries of parental authority. She found that as children became older and the social experience more diverse they began to recognize that certain actions only affect oneself, and that those actions should be under one's own jurisdiction. So that to understand the social interaction between the child and parental authority it may be necessary to consider the child's conception of the particular social event (Selman, 1980). Tisak suggests that the child's reasoning regarding the legitimacy of a parent's command may then influence his or her social behaviour. In support of this, Patterson (1982) points to a sub-group of aggressive children who, contrary to some findings, have high self-esteem and whose perceptual system holds views of the victims of their coercion as deserving all they receive.

That a link between perceptions and stressors may exist is hardly surprising when one considers the body of literature which suggests perceptions of children held by parents can be the source of the greatest differences between clinic-referred and normal children (Delfini, Bernal and Rosen, 1976; Griest, Forehand, Wells and McMahon, 1980; Lobitz and Johnson, 1975). Part of the observed variance between parental perceptions and child behaviour has been accounted for by several different measures of parental adjustment such as depression (Griest et al, 1980), marital satisfaction (O'Leary and Emery, 1975) and stress (Mash and Johnston, 1983). Middlebrook and Forehand (1985) suggest that the construct of stress may offer the

best opportunity to study how maternal perceptions interact with child behaviour because of its relationship with both depression and marital satisfaction. Factors such as reinforcement, punishment, emotional and cognitive variables can have immediate and direct effects on relationships and they can also combine additively to affect our responses. On days when child caretakers are under moderate stress they are more likely to act irritably to their children (Wahler and Dumas, 1986). When aggressive children find themselves in ambiguous social situations they are more likely to evaluate the situation coercively and to respond with aggression.

Studies are beginning to appear in the literature that attempt to examine the linkings between social interactional processes and social, perceptual and attitudinal characteristics of family members. Compared with some past efforts to research non-observable variables, there is, in the recent research, a strong assumption that structural components defining relationships can change over time and that changes in those structures can lead to positive or pathological social adjustments.

7. Some methodological problems in the study of families.

Anyone interested in the relationship between family interaction and psychopathology confronted with a variety of problems in research strategy, conceptualization and interpretation of findings.

Criteria for subject selection are often ill-defined and inadequate. Heterogeneous populations, uncontrolled for social status, age and sex and with a variety of deviant behaviours included are often used (Hetherington and Martin, 1979). The literature is replete with studies of family relations of "disturbed" versus "non-disturbed" families (Alkire, 1969; Schuham, 1970), or "clinic" versus "non-clinic" groups (Becker and Iwakami, 1969). Other studies define their disturbed groups more precisely and differentiate between types of pathology, but lack the non-disturbed control groups essential to evaluate whether obtained interaction patterns really differ significantly from those of normal families.

Recent emphasis has been placed on the importance of studying the interaction of the entire family. Ideally this would include both parents and siblings of children exhibiting deviant behaviour. However, such studies are in the minority. Most studies have focussed on the mother-child relationship, partly because of the greater accessiblility of mothers than fathers as participants in such research and partly because of the emphasis placed on the importance of early mother-child interaction (Hetherington and Martin, 1979). Larson (1974) referred to this practice as the most apparent weakness in family research. In 1975 Cromwell and Olson lamented that only a few studies had included both husbands and wives, and rarely had a child also been included in them.

The long-standing issue of the relative worths of

objective versus subjective measures continues to exercise attention (Kulka, 1979). Current conceptualizing of the family within a social interactional perspective gives observable behaviours and perceptions more comparable status with each other (Patterson and Reid, 1984) in terms of their potential worth. McIntyre et al (1983) in a survey of forty-three studies using home based observation of conduct-disordered children found clear increases in the use of direct observations in the previous eleven years but wide disparity in the quality of scientific reporting. Across all investigations over 170 child and parent behaviours have been observed with 105 of those being child behaviours suggesting greater emphasis still on child behaviours as dependant measures rather than family behaviours.

Frequently the use of perceptions as indicators of, or to the exclusion of, objective measures has been a reflection of the difficulties associated with developing good objective measures. A major problem with subjective measures is of course, that perceptions can be influenced by personal characteristics of respondents. That is not inherently undesirable since relationships between environmental perceptions and individual characteristics may reflect the mediating role of particular environments families are living within (Moos, 1974). As Kulka (1979) indicated, such subjective measures may often provide more accurate appreciation of the "actual" environment than some of the cruder objective measures employed. As the

circumstances under which either objective or subjective measures are collected are not yet clearly established the recommendation of Pervin (1967) is still pertinent today - wherever possible collect both kinds of measures.

During the 1970's questions of ecological validity were raised in relation to the study of families (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 1980). The desirability of studying children from a social context alters the emphasis in our research guidelines. Since more than two people are usually involved in the ecology of development, designs need to utilize relations between more than two people. Secondly, because children influence those who influence them, designs need to allow for reciprocal social processes. Thirdly, since adults other than the parents are not strangers and have enduring roles and relationships with children, research should focus on their effects on childrens' lives. Fourthly, because behaviour of all people may be profoundly affected by other systems in which the same people participate in different but significant roles, studies should demonstrate the relations between systems as they affect behaviours and development (Bronfenbrenner, 1980).

As a consequence of this altered emphasis, questions have been raised about the tradition of removing children and families from their everyday environment and studying them in laboratory settings without acknowledging the characteristics of those settings and their interplay with family characteristics. Against this, Bronfenbrenner (1979)

questioned the almost automatic assumption of ecological and scientific legitimacy that may be accorded studies in real life settings. Even more arbitrary is the implication that research carried out in non-natural settings is necessarily ecologically invalid amd scientifically suspect. It is neither necessary nor possible to meet all the criteria for ecological research within a single investigation. Provided the research recognizes which qualifications are and are not met, useful scientific information can be gained (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

Bronfenbrenner continued his argument by stating that the significance of the laboratory as an ecological setting employed for research on human behaviour is determined by how the laboratory situation is perceived by the subjects, and by the roles, activities and relations activated by those perceptions. Hence the laboratory becomes an ecologically valid setting for human studies only when two conditions are met. Firstly, the psychological and social meaning of the laboratory experience to the subjects is investigated and known to the researcher. Secondly, the subjective meaning of the laboratory situation corresponds to the environmental experience to which the researcher wishes to generalize. That means we are committed to follow-up and to be aware of the dangers of automatically projecting our laboratory findings into the natural setting.

Debate has occurred around the requirements related to making laboratory studies ecologically valid. Hughes and

Haynes (1978) surveyed the utility of structured laboratory observations of families in over thirty published articles. Their major concern was to try to determine how valid generalizing to natural environments is from structured laboratory situations. They concluded that clinic data are "probably" valid in assessing parent-child interactions and are more efficient than naturalistic observations. A major caution was that the relationship between observed clinic behaviour and observed behaviour in natural settings has not been adequately assessed and that it is possible for parent-child behaviour in contrived environments to be contrived behaviour. Forehand, Wells and Sturgis (1978) investigated that issue further by looking for predictors from the laboratory to the home. In a study of structured and unstructured laboratory assessments and unstructured home visits they found using multiple regression analysis, that there was a positive relationship between maternal rewards and compliance and a negative relationship between commands and compliance. Thus, in respect with compliance, the laboratory setting can be used to assess and predict home problems.

Lobitz and Johnson (1975) studied the stability of behaviour across situations and found the behaviour of referred children was more stable across situations than was that of non-referred children. Patterson (1982) alludes also to evidence suggesting stability of aggressive behaviour across settings. These observational studies of problem children in the home and classroom showed that 50%

of those children studied were deviant in both settings (Bernal, Delfini, North and Kreutzer, 1976; Johnson, Bolstad and Lobitz, 1976; Patterson, Cobb and Ray, 1972). Some studies have indicated that mothers can alter their own behaviour when observed (Zegiob, Arnold and Forehand, 1975) but have difficulty altering that of their children. Lobitz and Johnson (1975) found parents able to manipulate their children to appear more socially undesirable but not to appear more socially desirable.

Few studies have directly assessed the comparability of home and laboratory observations of family interactions. Several studies which have done so have yielded conflicting results (Belsky, 1981; Kniskern, Robinson and Mitchell, 1983, Johnson and Balstad, 1975). Also when discrepencies occur in the behaviours between home and laboratory the claim is made that behaviour in one setting is unrepresentative whilst the other setting is claimed to be representative (Bavelas, 1984; Gurman, 1984).

8. The aims of this thesis.

A major aim of this thesis is to contrast, within a laboratory setting, the family systems of two potentially different groups of people; those families with an aggressive 8-12 year old child in their midst about whom there is some parental concern, and those families with a highly-socialized 8-12 year old in their midst. The aim is to study the relationships within those families with the emphasis broader than simply focussing on the relationship

between target child and significant others. Others relationships to others within the family are given equal status and an attempt is made to overcome some of the pitfalls already mentioned which cast doubt on the ecological validity of earlier studies.

The author has taken the perspective that if the current status of a family is to be understood then we must have some understanding of the perceptions family members hold of each other as well as the behaviours they choose to practice in each others' company. It is also held that the current status of a family is influenced by their relationship with the supports embedded in the community around them: work, leisure, extended family as examples.

To begin with, an assessment of parents' perceptions of family relationships was carried out on both family groups, recruited from schools and helping organizations around Christchurch. A modification of Kelly's (1955) Repertory Grid was utilised without adopting Kelly's Construct Theory. The modified version used was the dyad grid, utilised by Ryle (1981), which allowed parents to describe, from a number of provided constructs, their perceptions of family relationships. Two chapters are set aside for that study; one essentially decriptive using Slater's (1972) Ingrid analysis for grids and the second focussing on major differences between the groups and using Slater's (1972) Delta analysis for grids.

The relationship between the parents is a variable frequently mentioned in the literature on distressed and

non-distressed families. An attempt to describe the respective parental relationships is made by grouping constructs from the grids into coercively and co-operatively associated constructs and using the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Test to measure relationship satisfaction.

The perceptions of the children were measured by using the Dyad grid (Ryle, 1981) with the same Ingrid and Delta analyses (Slater, 1972) and same grouping of constructs as used with their parents.

One of the potentially most interesting sections is that dealing with the supports available to each family group. Topics like stress and depression are currently being actively investigated in the context of their relation to family circumstances and perceptions (Wahler and Dumas, 1981, Belsky, 1984, Middlebrook and Forehand, 1985) but little definitive evidence is available to relate various kinds of support to different family types. So this section was largely exploratory. The area of supports and family types is very likely to be one where much exciting investigation occurs over the next few years.

The final empirical section of this study looked at the behaviours demonstrated by family members to each other and attempted to relate those findings to those from the studies of perceptions, in an attempt to find the best predictors of intra-family behaviour.

In the concluding sections the evidence is discussed and summarised with critiques made of the study, and

suggestions for future research also provided.

CHAPTER TWO

METHOD

1. Criteria for subject inclusion.

Numerous helping agencies and primary schools around Christchurch were approached for help in contacting families who were either:-

Aware of their own problems of aggression from a 7 - 12 year old child in their midst and were seeking help for those problems

or

Coping well and included a highly-socialized 7-12 year old in their midst.

All referral sources were given details of the criteria for inclusion in the study which included:-

Criteria (1)

Two parent families in which there had not been a separation of the parents over the last four years. This was an attempt to overcome any recent adjustments to separation within the family, or separation and subsequent re-uniting which might still be influencing members.

Criteria (2)

Neither parent suffering from any diagnosed mental illness.

Criteria (3)

At least one child within the family was to be aged

between seven and twelve years and to be viewed as either aggressive or well-adjusted but not within the mid-range of social behaviour.

Criteria (4)

The above child was to have been part of that family for at least four years, for reasons similar to Criteria 1 above.

Criteria (5)

The family was not to be undergoing any current therapy with the referral agency. They may have been assessed or on a waiting list but not to have commenced therapy. Uncontrolled therapy effects had the potential to unpredictably influence the data being collected.

Criteria (6)

The target 7-12 year old child was not to be suffering from any diagnosed mental illness.

Overall, the criteria sought to involve families whose current situation was not induced by diagnosed psychiatric illness, recent separation, reunion, remarriage nor influenced by current therapy.

A. Matching of families.

Members of the experimental group (distressed - aggressive) were contacted first. Following their participation the control group (non-aggressive highly-socialized target children) were contacted. A family was included in the control group if it matched with one experimental group family on the following variables:-

Criteria 7

Parents were to be of the same approximate age. Age groupings were used for matching purposes, e.g. <26, 26-30, 31-35, 36-40, _ _ _ _ _ 60+. Matching was considered to have occurred if same sex parents in each family had ages in the same group. Not always could such matching occur for all four parents across any two families being matched. However, this allowed for some control of age effects, gathering of resources within the same S.E.S. level, opportunities, experiences and developmental effects.

Criteria 8

The number of children in matching families was kept the same.

Criteria 9

Socio-economic status of the families as indicated by the occupation of the father was the same. This provided some control of income, material resources and education benefits available to the family.

Criteria 10

Same-age matching of target children occurred to within twelve months of each other.

Criteria 11

Sex of the target children was matched.

While not specifically controlled for, age topography of the children was approximated. Thus as close as possible similar youngest-to-oldest age spreads occurred. It was not possible to attempt both that and control of youngest-to-oldest sex order.

2. Subject contact methods.

Methods used to contact participating families mostly followed a similar format. However, because of the varying wishes of referral agencies some differences occurred. For that reason the description of contact methods is divided into two sections; aggressive and highly-socialized.

A. Aggressive target children.

Helping agencies were asked to recommend families for inclusion who had recognized and were seeking help for problems of aggression in one of their seven to twelve year old children. In this matter the researcher was guided both by a desire not to add further to the problems of distressed families by identifying sources of stress they were not yet prepared to accept, and secondly by a need for an on-going therapy if it was wished. Referral agencies or other sources were available for that therapy.

Participating families came from the following agencies:-

1. Child and Family Guidance Centre. (C.& F.G.C.).	4 families
2. Parentline, a telephone advice centre.	5 families
3. School Principals.	9 families
4. Justice Department.	1 family
5. Parent Teacher Association talk by the researcher	1 family
6. Self-referral from a family hearing of	

of the study from a School Principal. 1 family

The total was twenty-one families.

Initial contact varied in the following way:-

(a) C.& F.G.C.

These four families were contacted by letter (Appendix 2.1) advising them of the study and notifying them of a coming phone call to give further details and to ask permission for the researcher to contact them. A senior staff-member of the C.& F.G.C. made the initial contact.

(b) School Principals.

Three families were contacted by letter and phone and seven were contacted by phone only, with content mirroring the C.&F.G.C. contacts. In all cases the Principals made initial contacts and obtained permission for the researcher to contact them directly.

(c) These agencies made six telephone contacts following the C.& F.G.C. model.

(d) Parent Teacher Association.

One informal face-to-face contact came following a P.T.A. talk. The researcher met one parent of the family, gave as much information as possible along the C.& F.G.C. model plus the information given to all families once the researcher had been allowed to contact them directly.

Up until this point all families had been assured of confidentiality, had explained to them the role of

Universities in research, and that refusal to participate would in no way jeopardise any on-going contact between the family and the agency.

Upon permission being gained for the researcher to directly phone interested families, further information was given by him of the study in general detail and of the one evening of activity by them in the observation room of the C.& F.G.C. Parents were then asked to discuss the idea together, and with their families. A return phone call determined the extent of interest and families reporting interest were visited in their homes on one evening, soon after, by the researcher. Such visits helped determine that each family member had a chance to talk over the proposal and were prepared to participate. Anxieties and questions related to participation were shared with the researcher. It was hoped that such visits also helped reduce the effects on data collection of redidual resentments, anger etc. by eliciting support rather than having individuals feeling participation forced on them. Children were assured that the focus of the study was on the whole family and that no one person counted any more or less than any other person. Finally, if definite family participation was agreed to the visit had prevented the researcher from being a total stranger to the family when the research commenced. This was considered desirable, as an objective of the study was to gather data within a non-threatening environment to minimize additional tension on the family. Thus, prior establishing of contact with the researcher was important.

B. Highly-socialized children.

These twenty-one families were all obtained through Christchurch primary schools. All matching criteria were met through checking school records, and lists of matching families were checked with the Principals and contacted by them. The same assurances, superficial information, requests for permission to allow the researcher direct access as before, were given in this contact.

Whereas aggressive families had been told that problems which they had discussed with the agency had been the prompt for the invitation to join the study, the parents of well-adjusted children were told that this portion of the study was to investigate a normal family with a normally coping youngster in their midst. No mention was made of the better-than-normal coping behaviours of their children to avoid halo effects influencing data collection. No further contact was made with families refusing to participate.

Subsequent contact by the researcher was the same as for the aggressive group.

3. Materials.

A. Social Development Scale (Alexander, 1980).

This forty-six item questionnaire was used by both parents plus the classroom teacher to rate on a five point Likert-type scale the behaviour noted in the target children over the previous four weeks. Such behaviour was

to have been seen by the respondent and not simply reported by some-one else. The scale took approximately ten minutes to complete and was scored within two minutes, to give a total overall score for each child.

To participate within the experimental group at least two of the three adults (two parents and one teacher) completing the scale needed to score a target child's behaviour at less than 190 points. Entry to the control group similarly required 197 or above. Obtained scores on this scale were the sole criteria for the allocation to contrast groups. (Appendix 2.2.). Cut-off points were based on findings by Turnbull (1980), Church (1982), Munro (1982) and Rossiter (1982) using the scale. Rossiter (1982) found that a cut-off at 192 correctly classified 98% of aggressive and well-socialized children. A 7-point gap was arbitrarily decided upon as a method of emphasising the differences between the degree of socialization demonstrated by children in the two groups rather than accept the single cut-off point identified by Rossiter.

B. Occupation Prestige Ranking Scale For New Zealand. (Davis, 1974).

This scale was used by the researcher alone to rank occupation of fathers on seven levels according to income and required educational-training prequisites. These rankings were done at the time of matching, before control families had been contacted.

C. Inventory of Rewarding Activities (I.R.A.). (Birchler, 1975).

The inventory includes a list of ninety-four activities which respondent parents could indulge in alone, with their spouse, with their spouse and other adults, with their family and spouse, and with others but not including their spouse. In order to determine the kinds of rewarding and recreational activities indulged in over the four weeks prior to participating in the study, parents ticked appropriate boxes. (Appendix 2.3.).

D. Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Test. (Locke-Wallace, 1959).

This sixteen item questionnaire covers perceptions of agreement and disagreement, involvement with each other and happiness experienced by each spouse in their marriage.

Various answers bring different scores which were then added for a total score. Individual scores of one hundred and above were considered to separate those happily married from those unhappily married. Approximately five minutes were needed to complete the test. (Appendix 2.4.).

E. Relationship Repertory Grid - Adults. (Ryle and Lunghi, 1972).

Parents each completed this version of the repertory grid to evaluate their family relationships. It consisted, in this case, of thirteen provided constructs and up to as many elements as were needed to label each relationship in

the family within the categories of;-

(a) Parent <----> parent.

(b) Self <----> each child.

(c) Spouse <----> each child.

In effect no more than eighteen elements were needed in any individual grid, i.e. myself to my spouse, and my spouse to me were considered two elements. The thirteen provided constructs were derived from literature reports of concern expressed by distressed families and by family therapists. Other equally salient constructs could have been chosen, but the potential for subject tiredness reduced the number of constructs used.

Parents were to rank the presence or absence of the supplied constructs on a five point scale to any of the relationship elements. Approximately twenty to thirty minutes were needed to complete the grid. (Appendix 2.5.).

F. Relationship Repertory Grid - Children.

This eleven construct relationship grid used six provided elements ranging over:-

(a) Parent <----> parent.

(b) Mother <----> respondent.

(c) Father <----> respondent.

All children seven years and older completed this grid. For the youngest children, or less able, two dimensional cut-out figures were used to represent family members and appropriate rankings made. Time for this grid varied from fifteen to thirty minutes depending on age and

use of cut-out figures. (Appendix 2.6.)

G. Family Circumstances Survey.

This survey was developed by the researcher in an effort to check attitudes in the area of:-

(a) Full-time employment outside of the home.

(b) Attitudes of working-mothers to division of labour at home.

(c) Schooling.

(d) Extended family support.

(e) Leisure.

In all, parents responded to sixty-four items on a five point Likert-scale, twenty-two demographic questions and they also ranked fifteen leisure items. The survey incorporated the eleven-item 'L'-scale from the M.M.P.I. (Adams and Hern, 1965) to control for social desirability. Average time to complete the survey was approximately thirty minutes. (Appendix 2.7.).

H. A Game - "Getting There." (Baker and Marshall, 1974)

This simulation game was rewritten by the researcher for an average eight year old to read and comprehend. Trials with children of that age group in several Christchurch classrooms established that the game could be comprehended and played by them.

A purpose of simulation games is to simulate a complex slice of life. There are usually goals to be achieved, rules to be observed and conflicts to be negotiated. There

is usually some competition and hopefully some fun as well. A simulation game may thrust the player into a conflict situation requiring choices and decisions and living with the consequences. Such games provide an avenue for experimenting, risk taking and coalition-creation. If successful, they allow complex social interactions to occur while engrossing the participants sufficiently to reduce awareness of their surroundings.

There is a long history of games and activities being utilized to initiate observed interactions. Mischler and Waxler, (1968), Strodbeck (1972), Schuham (1970) and others have utilized a revealed differences method whereby areas of potential conflict between family members were identified and then presented to them as a problem to be discussed. Others have developed problem solving tasks (Reiss, 1967), joint family activities (Roman and Bauman, 1960; Minuchin, 1967), bargaining games (Ravich, 1966) and discussion topics (Cheek, 1964).

Hetherington and Martin (1979) indicated that studies involving highly structured problem solving tasks suggested inefficiencies in family communication processes, but do not tell much about how current family interactions are maintaining particular family or individual disorders. They suggested that combinations of more naturalistic and home observations and semi-structured tasks that elicit behaviours more directly relevant to explaining family symptoms and analysis of discrete interaction sequences.

Much research then, has used activities to promote

interaction for observation. Mostly the properties of those activities are not under investigation only the interaction which the activities elicit. "Getting There" was chosen as a game which family members down to pre-school age could join into with family help. It could be played reasonably independently by an average eight-year-old, provided opportunities for co-operative or competitive responses, permitted coalitions to evolve, and involved much potential ambiguity (depending on combinations of players' choices) which the family somehow or other would have to resolve. As far as the author is aware, it is a game which has not been used in other research endeavours.

Each family played the game for thirty-five minutes while being video-recorded from behind a one-way mirror. The game involved dice throwing, counter moving and the use of "choice-or-chance" cards to hinder or assist oneself and others in the game. The rules were clearly printed on a card which the family was given to work through. However, combinations of "choice-or-chance" cards could create ambiguous situations which each family was to resolve in its own manner. The objective of each individual was to be the winner in a race from start to finish. Obstacles needed negotiating and decisions had to be made on the way - all of which could markedly influence the progress of others. Each family had the opportunity to decide how much each individual member joined in the game and in the ensuing activities in the same way they would have at home. (Appendix 2.8.).

I. Post-game activities.

Four tasks followed the game:-

(a) Discuss the game and actions taken within it.

(b) Discuss changes they would like to make within their family.

(c) Discuss things they like within their family.

(d) Each family was given ten dollars to keep and asked to decide what it was to be spent on. Decisions were to be binding.

Standardized instructions were given for these tasks as were maximum time limits (10 mins each for (a), (b), and (d), 5 mins for (c)). This section was video-recorded. (Appendix 2.9.)

4. Apparatus.

A. Video recordings of the families.

A National reel-to-reel recorder NV-3030E recorded family interactions through a video camera mixer using two cameras. This was transcribed onto a three-hour half-inch V.H.S. cassette for cost saving purposes using V.H.S.cassette recorder NV-8600EN.

B. Training of a coder.

A National half-inch porta-pack unit was used to make training tapes divided as follows:-

(1) Tape 1. Ten twenty-second sequences illustrating the twenty-nine categories of the coding system.

(2) Tape 2. Three five-minute sequences of specific

categories in the coding system.

(3) Tape 3. Ten-minute sequences expanding the number of codes used in each sequence.

(4) Tape 4. A thirty-five minute trial family interaction using the earlier mentioned game and part-game activities.

C. Coding of tapes.

A five-bank timer (Lafayette model 52021) was programmed to flash a light every six seconds to correspond with the end of a coding period. At the end of each sequence of five flashes a bleep sounded simultaneously with the fifth flash to indicate that coding should begin on a new line.

This thirty-second cycle continued for as long as it was needed for coding. The tapes were played through a National black and white video monitor.

D. Miscellaneous items.

The "Getting There" game was printed on a 640mm X 850mm board and involved the use of 2 dice, numerous coloured plastic counters and a collection of "choice" cards with printed instructions for participants to use. Instructions for this game and subsequent video recorded activities were printed out on seperate cards and presented to the family for use.

Assorted collections of toys, magazines, comics and current newspapers were also available to each family in

combinations related to the age spread of family members. Meals, tea, coffee, cold drinks and biscuits were also provided during the evening in two breaks for all family members. Pens and answer forms were provided for all paper and pencil work, amd when needed cardboard figures representing family members were utilized for grids being completed by younger children.

E. Setting.

Each family was welcomed by the researcher and escorted to a first floor carpeted room approximately 4 X 5.5 metres. The windows were all double-glazed and hung with drapes to reduce from external noises. At one end of the room was a floor to ceiling one way mirror extending a full 4.0 metres. Behind that screen in the two ceiling corners were two video cameras controlled by the researcher. Heavy drapes also covered the one way mirrors to reduce any possible intrusive effects awareness of their presence may have had on participants. Slight partings in the curtains at the corners of the room allowed the two cameras to observe all parts of the laboratory apart from sections immediately up against the one way mirror. One table for eating and structured activity papers was provided along with comfortable seats for all family members and a box of toys for children to play with. Plenty of room existed for family members to sit, move around, play at a table or on the floor. Microphones were positioned in the ceiling so that verbal interactions at

any point within the room could be recorded. All lighting was from ceiling lights playing light directly down onto family participants.

5. Pre-testing procedure.

Once families had agreed to participate in the study the parents were asked to complete the Social Development Scale (SDS) on the target child in each family. It was made clear at this point that the scale was the only part of the data collection aimed specifically at any one child and that later data collection was aimed at finding out about everyone in the family. Similar evaluations had already been completed by teachers of families contacted through the schools. Permission was gained from parents to obtain teacher evaluations on the S.D.S. of target children.

As has been earlier mentioned, no feedback was given to respondents of the S.D.S. scores obtained. However two potential problems existed. These were:-

A. Aggressive target group.

In the event that two of the three adults scored a target child above the S.D.S. cut-off of 190 it would have rendered that family ineligible to paticipate. The strategy to meet that contingency involved the researcher, during his visit to the family, informing them of the ineligibility. He would empathise with their difficulties, and where possible, spend time gathering further information leading to proposed simple changes within the

family which may modify problems. Alternatively he would give them methods of contacting helping agencies. On no account would families feeling distressed have been left without some positive ideas of how to seek help.

However, at no stage of the study was the problem of parents scoring their child too high on the S.D.S. met. Thus the projected strategy was not tested.

B. Highly-socialized group.

Similarly, if two of the three adults scored a child below 197 on the S.D.S. it disqualified that family from inclusion. This problem only occurred with parents' scorings as no family was contacted if the school evaluation was less than 197.

At this point a deception occurred to avoid families feeling that their child was not normally-enough adjusted to participate and possibly feeling some resentment. A mock comparison of their scores was made against a matching family in the experimental group. Disappointment was expressed by the researcher at the lack of a "matching - opposing pattern" to that of the aggressive child in the experimental family. The researcher then explained the problems of matching, thanked the family for being prepared to participate and left. Several such families indicated a preparedness to be re-contacted if matchings became possible. Several weeks later a letter was sent to those families informing them that the necessary number of families had been contacted and matchings with their family

had not been possible. They were again thanked for their preparedness to participate and apologies tendered for any inconvenience. Positive evaluations from school and home S.D.S. were passed on in a general way.

Generally, deception is not to be encouraged in research. Because of the importance of maintaining the S.D.S. criteria, potential existed to hurt the feelings of families through no fault of their own. Such hurts could adversely influence their attitudes towards any future research they may be asked to participate within. This small deception was seen as an acceptable way of overcoming these problems.

6. Testing procedures in the laboratory.

A. Pre-video recording.

These began with attendance at the clinic. Each family arrived at approximately 5.30 p.m. on any night of the week convenient to them. Only one family was studied per evening and they were welcomed by the researcher and taken to the activity room. Throughout the evening a low-key approach was taken by the researcher and his assistant. Families were present for one and a half hours before any observation data was collected. During that time they had been provided with an easily prepared evening meal, tea, coffee and cold drinks, and been given the opportunity to adjust to their surroundings and the researcher.

Typically, toys and children were spread around the floor and parents either played with them, read or

interacted in whatever way they saw fit. The researcher attempted to interact at some time with all family members, especially anyone looking anxious. At times he joined in with the children at games or discussed topics unrelated to the study with parents. He moved in and out of the room regularly and allowed family members to see other parts of the building as they wished. Every effort was made to minimise tensions which could be attributed to the clinic setting, while trying to avoid over-familiarity.

During the previously mentioned home visits, each family was given an explanation of the video-recordings which were to be made. During the welcome to the clinic, families were again reminded of the video and assured of their privacy in the activity room until filming began from the adjacent room at commencement of the first assigned family activity. No further mention of recording was made.

During the one and a half hours before video - recording, parents were asked to complete the Family Circumstances Survey which was usually completed just before the meal was served. Parents were asked to complete this alone and the researcher sat with them to reduce possible collaboration effects and to answer their questions.

A typical timetable involved:-

5.30 Family arrives and are welcomed. Escorted to the laboratory setting.

5.30 - 6.00 Relaxing with magazines, newspapers, toys, etc.

6.00 - 6.30 Parents complete Family Circumstances Survey. Children relax.

6.30 - 7.00 Meal provided for family members.

7.00 - 8.30 Video recordings including 10 minute refreshment break .

8.30 - 9.00 Repertory grids completed by children and parents.

9.00 - 9.15 Informal evaluation. Family departs.

B. Video recording.

Following the meal the structured game "Getting There" and the four discussion and decision making tasks were begun. At this point video recording began. Minutes 0-10 of the game were recorded for observation of early responsibility taking, interactions etc. to check how the family oriented themselves to the game. A further 10 minutes elapsed without recording and minutes 20-35 were recorded. The break allowed settling down to occur to allow families to become more involved in the game, possibly reducing any contaminating warm-up effects.

Following the thirty-five minutes of the game each family spent a maximum of 10 minutes discussing the game before a break of 10 minutes was given for cold drinks and biscuits. This was to offset any possible effects of fatigue. Then followed the remaining three discussions giving a maximum of sixty minute video observation per family. However, some families finished within the maximum time limits and the range of recordings per family was

45-60 minutes.

The video-recorded activities were chosen on the bases of their being potentially similar to activities indulged in at home by families. Thus most families have some form of board games played at home and sometimes talk of the games afterwards. Discussions related to what is or isn't going well at home also turn up frequently, as does the topic of spending money. Families could involve whoever they wished in the games and other activities (as at home) to try to minimize the clinic environment imposing a structure not normally there.

C. Post-video recording.

This section of the evening involved paper-and-pencil assessment for all family members over the age of seven years. Parents were asked to separately fill in the Relationship Repertory Grid and Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Test under the supervision of the research assistant. With the parents' permission and children's co-operation, the children were taken to a nearby room with the researcher to complete the children's version of the Relationship Repertory Grid. The separation of the family was to make it easier for parents to complete their tasks without supervision problems and for the children to complete their evaluations without the constraint of their parents presence. The children were assured of confidentiality and that only the researcher would have access to their answers. They were also informed of their

parents awareness of what they were doing, their approval and their lack of knowledge concerning the children's answers.

In both parents and children's grids attempts were made not to provide a meaning for the various constructs in order to avoid imposing the researcher's interpretations on the family. Instead, when a construct was not clear other family members were approached and asked "How does (e.g.) "being critical" show itself in your family?" In such a way it was hoped that the explanation by a fellow family member of a construct could be nearer to the use of that construct within the family.

Finally the family was reassembled for the informal evaluation session and agreement gained to return to their homes later to share the results. Anything that anyone did not wish shared with others would be kept to a confidential discussion between that subject and the researcher.

D. Informal evaluation.

At the end of all formal testing the following topics were briefly discussed with the families:-

(a) The extent to which they felt individual members may have been different to normal in their clinic interactions compared to home.

(b) If differences occurred in (a) some idea was obtained of what they were and efforts made to assess their implications.

(c) How real each person felt their interactions to be.

(d) How aware of being observed and evaluated they were during data gathering.

(e) What important areas of their lives had been omitted.

(f) What areas assessed were of minimal importance to their family.

(g) How confident were they that any evaluation from the collected data would accurately reflect their home interactions.

(h) Permission was gained to analyse the material if it was felt to be reliable indications of their family.

(i) Agreement was obtained for the researcher to return to subjects' homes with analysed material to give the researcher some check on the veracity of material gained.

7. Order of data-collection.

Apart from the Social Development Scale data which was used as the independent variable and had to be collected early, the order of data collection was that of the potentially least threatening first and the potentially most threatening last. In so doing, families were given the opportunity to adjust to data collection without being made overly anxious early on before they had adjusted to the situation.

8. De-briefing and reporting back.

Following the analysis of data from each family, the researcher returned to each home with the findings. The

exact nature of the Social Development evaluations for highly-socialized children were given to correct the impression given by the researcher of "normally adjusted" children.

Implications from other data were shared which could be interpreted for each family and did not need comparison with other control and experimental group data. The accuracy of the data was checked with individual family members and on only one occasion did a child not wish the material shared with the family.

For families in distress some areas of change were discussed or alternative ways of seeking assistance established, both of which were outside the scope of the research.

9. Data analysis.

A. Family interaction coding system. (Reid, 1976)

This system involved observing each family member on the video recordings for five-minute periods and their interactions with other family members. Interactions were coded into six-second consecutive sequences over the entire period of observation. Individual family members were coded as follows:-

(a) Target children in the family.

(b) Father.

(c) Mother.

(d) Oldest child, not including the target child.

(e) Next oldest child, not including the target child.

(f) Next oldest but one, not including the target child.

Twenty-nine verbal and non-verbal behaviours related to the development and maintenance of aggressive co-operative behaviours were used in coding. The system was used by an observer trained in the use of the code.

Frame-by-frame reliability checks were made during observer training and throughout the study. These are described in detail within Chapter 8 of this thesis.

B. A description of the groups.

All demographic data was analysed by the MANOVA programme which performed univariate and multivariate analysis of variance. An overall test of significance was obtained using Wilk's Lambda criteria which utilised Rao's approximate t-test.

When the experimental and control groups were compared using univariate analyses, only three variables were found to have group means differing significantly. These variables were the ages of the fathers ($F=5.354$, $p<.05$), number of years in the current marriage for the parents ($F=10.70$, $p<.005$) and the birth order of the target children ($F=4.876$, $p<.05$). However, when all variables were submitted simultaneously to multivariate analysis the overall effect was that the differences were not significant ($F=1.576$, $p<.16$).

What follows is a general description of the families which were involved in all of the ensuing sections of this thesis. The term, Group A, will refer to the families with

aggressive target children, and Group B to families with highly-socialized children.

C. The fathers.

Group A fathers had a mean age of 33.5 years. All were employed and had been employed in their current jobs for some 7.6 years and worked an average 44 hours per week. Their average income in 1981 terms was $15,400. Eight worked in management or professional positions, four were skilled tradesmen, two were salesmen, one worked in sales, five were unskilled workers and one was self-employed. In their immediately previous jobs they had held positions for an average of 4.2 years.

Twelve of the men did not gain any school qualifications at all, five gained School Certificate and three University Entrance. One left the education system at the end of Primary School when aged thirteen, and one left at the end of Seventh Form. The majority completed their Fifth Form year. Two went on to University training, six to Trade Certification and one to professional training at Teachers College.

On average they were in their first marriage and had been married for 11.9 years. They had an average 1.6 parents and 3.0 siblings alive, with 1.47 parents and 1.43 siblings living nearby.

Group B fathers had a mean age of 37 years, some three years older than Group A fathers. All were employed and had been in current employment for some 9.2 years working a

mean of 44.8 hours per week for a yearly income of $16,800. Seven worked in managerial or professional positions, seven were skilled workers, one was a clerk, four were in sales and two were unskilled. In their immediately previous jobs they had held positions for an average of 3.6 years.

Twelve of the men did not gain any school qualifications at all, five gained School Certificate and three gained University Entrance. Two left the education system in Form Three and five left in Form Six. The majority completed their Fifth Form year. One went on to University training, six completed Trade Certificates and three completed professional training in surveying, engineering and theology.

On average they were in their first marriage and had been married for some 15.5 years. They also had on average 1.50 parents and 2.60 siblings alive, and 1.40 parents and 1.60 siblings living nearby.

D. The mothers.

Group A mothers had a mean age of 31.9 years. Five were full-time housewives and four had been employed in full-time work of over thirty hours outside of the home within the previous twelve months. Twelve had also been employed in part-time wage earning outside of their home within the previous twelve months.

For those seventeen mothers who had been employed outside of the home, between five and thirtyfive hours (mean 18.0 hours) per week went into that activity. The

average income for those mothers was less than $6,000. Combined wages of both parents gave Group A families a mean income of approximately $19,200 in 1981 terms. For most women, outside work served the twin purposes of an outside interest and supplemented their husbands' income. Those employed over the previous twelve months had been employed in those jobs for between one month and 5.5 years with a mean of 1.7 years. Four women worked in professional positions, one in a secretarial position, one in a clerical position, one self-employed picture framer and the balance in various aiding, cleaning and machinist positions.

Twelve of the women did not gain any school qualifications, seven gained School Certificate and two gained University Entrance. One left the education system at the end of Primary School when aged thirteen years, two left at the end of the Seventh Form, three in the Sixth Form and the remainder were equally split between leaving school at the end of Fourth and Fifth Form years. One woman went on to University training, four completed secretarial qualifications and four completed professional training in nursing and teaching.

On average they were in their first marriage, three were in their second marriages. They had 1.57 parents and 2.71 siblings alive with 1.43 parents and 1.52 siblings living nearby.

Group B mothers had a mean age of 34 years. Seven were full-time housewives and five had been employed in full-time work of over thirty hours outside of the home

within the previous twelve months. Eight had also been employed in part-time wage earning outside of their home within the previous twelve months. For those thirteen mothers who had been employed outside of the home between five and forty hours per week (mean 21.8 hours) went into that work. Their average income was less than $6,000. Combined wages of both parents gave Group B families a mean income of approximately $20,400. Those women employed sometime in the previous twelve months had worked in their jobs for between one month and seven years. Two women worked in professional positions, three in clerical positions and the balance in various aiding and cleaning positions.

Eleven of the women did not gain any school qualificatons, six gained School Certificate and four gained University Entrance. Three left the education system in Form Three, one in Form Seven, five in Form Six and the majority completed Form Five. Two went on to secretarial training and three completed nursing and teaching qualifications.

All were in their first marriage. They also had 1.60 parents and 3.15 siblings alive with 1.55 parents and 1.50 siblings living nearby.

E. The children.

In all, 126 children participated in the study; 63 in each group, ranging from two to four children in each family with a mean of 3.0 children.

Age ranged in Group A from two through to sixteen years. The mean age of the 21 Group A target children was 10.00, with a range from 7.0 to 12.11 years. Seventeen of them were boys and four were girls. Target children had a mean of 1.19 brothers and 0.95 sisters. Nearest-age siblings over the age of seven years and completing the Repertory grid had a mean age of 10.00 years (S.D. = 2.0 years). There were sixteen such siblings, nine of them boys and seven girls. Target children had a mean birth order of 1.7 in their family placings.

In Group B the age of the children ranged from three through to seventeen years. The mean age of the 21 target children was 9.90 years with a range from 7.0 to 12.11 years. As with Group A, seventeen target children were boys and four were girls. Target children had a mean of 0.90 brothers and 1.05 sisters. Nearest-age siblings over the age of seven years and completing the Repertory grid had a mean age of 10.62 years (S.D. = 2.6 years). There were 19 such siblings, eight of them boys and eleven girls. Target children had a mean birth order of 2.30 in their family placings.

F. Norms and results for children on the Social Development Scale.

The Social Development Scale was developed by a group of researchers at Canterbury University to measure social development and social adjustment in disturbed children. A need was perceived to produce a scale which could be used

to identify socially retarded and disturbed children of both the delinquent / aggressive and shy / withdrawn types. The scale was produced for use by "teachers, social workers and others working in close association with disturbed students." (Alexander, 1980).

The Social Development Scale has two sub-scales aimed at differentiating between difficult and well-behaved children. The two sub-scales measure Social Skills and Socialization over forty-six items which are rated on a five point scale which indicates the relative frequency of individual items.

The original validation study by Alexander (1980) on forty-two difficult adolescents and forty-two well-behaved adolescents found marked differentiation between the two groups on both of the sub-scales and the total score. Even when most items related to shyness and avoidance of social interaction were withdrawn the differences remained. Difficult students were rated as significantly less likely to comply with requests and directions, accept praise, to co-operate, or to accept turning down of a request. They were more likely to steal, interrupt, damage property or act violently.

Further studies by Munro (1980), Turnbull (1980) and Rossiter (1982) using the Social Development Scale replicated the findings over different age groups. Rossiter's study of twenty-four difficult five to seven year old children described as either disruptive, aggressive, lacking in concentration, and hypreractive

found that a cut-off total scale score of 192 gave 98% correct classification of aggressive and well-socialized children. Rossiter found the scale to correlate 0.83 with teachers' judgements of easy to teach or difficult to teach, and to correlate 0.81 with total inappropriate behaviour observed per hour in the classroom. Turnbull (1980) found a correlation of 0.91 between total scale scores and teacher evaluations of children well-adjusted socially and children aggressive, delinquent, uncontrollable and defiant. Munro (1980) in her study of adolescents found a mean total scale score for difficult children of 146, and for well-behaved children of 209 from teacher evaluations. On a selection of forty-three normal six to twelve year olds Turnbull (1980) also established that no significant differences existed between the mean scores of teacher ratings ranging from 208 to 220 over those age groups.

According to Church (1982) in a summary of findings, with very few exceptions, children who have been referred to as difficult or disturbed obtained scores on the scale which are below the lowest of scores obtained by children judged as normal.

This current study using twenty-one highly-socialized and twenty-one aggressive children found that aggressive children scored significantly lower in all mother, father, teacher and overall total scale scores. (See Table 2.1.) When the overall ratings are considered the lowest rating of highly-socialized children is 195, while the highest

overall rating of an aggressive child was 183. As a consequence of these results the social development of the Group A target children can be assumed to be worse in both classroom and home environments.

Table 2.1. Ratings on the Social Development Scale by parents and teachers of all target children.

	Aggressive. children		Highly-soc. children		t-test	Sign
	X	SD	X	SD		
Mothers Evaluations	147.81	31.24	202.29	9.33	8.24	xxxx
Fathers Evaluations	157.90	26.25	195.62	11.05	5.68	xxxx
Teacher Evaluations	159.66	37.50	210.05	9.25	5.54	xxxx
Overall Evaluations	155.12	20.99	202.65	6.66	9.58	xxxx

xxxx $p < 0.001$

CHAPTER THREE

THE REPERTORY GRID
AND PARENTS PERCEPTION OF THEIR FAMILIES

Introduction

No exceptional insight is required to realize that everyone develops an inner world for use as a plan of the outer world confronting us. It is needed to organize and understand our experiences and to direct our attentions. Within it appear people we have met, things that have attracted our interests or aroused our fears, places visited or been told about, and so on. In sum, the extent and content of space, the past, the present and the future as far as we can visualize them. Moreover, many entities bearing little or no resemblance to anything in the outer world are probably included - such as our own private hopes and fears emanating from our imaginations.

The private universes of different individuals while varied in content have a common structure, similar potentialities and similar limitations. The sensory system receiving the data is common to all humanity - though occasionally defective. So too is the cognitive system which organizes them and makes abstract reasoning possible.

There are innumerable ways in which each person's microcosm is unique for it belongs to a particular person

who has had access to private sources of data in constructing it. There are vast areas of it distorted by prejudice and egocentricity or ignorance, forgetfulness and uncertainty. The elements within it are linked by a system of private relationships ranging over feelings of affection, loyalty, desire, indifference, hostililty, fear, and so on. It is hardly possible for anyone's microcosm to be more than an incomplete, distorted replica of the macrocosm to which it is intended to refer, since it is bound to need continual modification to accomodate the continuous input of fresh data. However much we may wish to do so, we cannot transcend the boundaries of our own inner worlds to attain truth about ourselves or anything else. Truth, while an ideal to be pursued, is difficult to obtain.

The physical sciences have come nearest to the rigorous science of accuracy and objectivity required. Psychology has made many conscious attempts to emulate them. Watson (1913, 1930) proposed that the subject should be restricted to the study of overt behaviour. He defined the subject matter of human psychology as the total behaviour of man from infancy to death. With the spread of behaviourism the introspective methods developed by Wundt (1911) and extended by Titchener (1912) fell out of favour.

Mental measurement is another line of investigation that can be followed without depending on introspective evidence. The objective becomes one of making precise comparisons between people and not to discover what goes on

within an individual. The researcher can present the subject with a number of responses to choose from and note the choices made without necessarily seeking underlying reasons. Measuring scales used can be related to some well-defined criteria without the whole undertaking leading to unsubstantiated speculation such as the postulation of traits in the absence of clearly established objective criteria. Given an unambiguous operational definition, the variable measured serves to compare one informant with another, or one group with another.

1. Individual variation

Psychological tests of a macrocosmic nature may be used as aids in categorizing. They compare a particular person with others by pinpointing him/her on a scale or set of scales and lead to conclusions that he/she resembles certain people and differs from others in certain respects and to a certain extent. This can aid in assigning him/her to a class of people about which a fair amount is known. For such tests their usefulness must depend largely on the care taken in standardizing them. Usage of N-number scales allow the formation of a N-dimensional co-ordinate system and the individuals measurements will place him/her at one particular point. If a within-individual profile was being established using the same scales then the one point at which the subject's scores place him/her is ignored and his/her performance, as indicated by his/her scores in relation to the standard deviations of each scale, could be

read. So that four attainment scales with a performance of say above +1 standard deviations and one scale of +2 standard deviations appears on the surface as an observation of variation within an individual. It shows what that individual is like in some respects and what he/she is like in other respects. From such a profile we could surmise he/she is aware of his/her relative weakness on the fifth scale and he/she may experience some stress because of it. This is a microcosmic interpretation placed with limited confidence on observations which are themselves macrocosmic. But the entire range of variation exhibited is due to differences between people and each person is in fact a single point within the distribution. The variation within the individual, the universe within the point, is not exposed to observation. Yet variation is certainly to be found within him/her when he/she is viewed as a microcosm, because it contains many elements distinguished from one another in many respects and degrees. Ways exist in which variation within an individual can be measured. Such variation is open to observation, is orderly, and is independent of experimental control.

A common experimental model providing measurements of variation within an individual is one where subjects, perhaps of several classes, undergo repeated trials. These may be different treatments also. A measurement is recorded for each subject at each trial. The variation observed within an individual is the amount found between the measurements in the set referring to him/her. If an

analysis of variance is made in such an experiment a general average is calculated of all the measurements recorded for every subject. The total observed variation is obtained as the sum of squares of all the differences. Part is due to variation between the subjects and part to variation between the trials. There is also a residual part attributable to subject/trial interaction for naturally each trial does not affect each subject in precisely the same way. The variation within the individuals indicate the second and third parts; variation between them only accounts for the first.

The residual part is sometimes treated as negligible and labelled error variance. e.g. An I.Q. is administered on two occasions and a test-retest reliability could be measured by comparing variation between subjects and variation due to interaction. The postulate that a subject's intelligence does not vary across trials forms part of the accepted notion of intelligence. If the amount of interaction is relatively large the test is deemed unreliable.

This assumption that subject/trial interaction is entirely erratic is habitual in the field of cognitive testing. The usual first question asked of a test is "What is its reliability?"

Trait psychology has through such assumptions tended to concentrate attention on the more stable aspects of personality to perhaps treat aspects which may be unstable as more stable than they necessarily are. Variable states

of mind are as in need of investigation as are stable states. However, they don't do well under traditional test-retest reliabilty assessment and so may appear suspect as the idea of charting them appears less appealing.

Larger experiments may analyse their variance through comparisons between classes, subjects in the same class, treatments, trials for the same treatment and then a whole series of interactions. Differences between persons would only contribute to between classes and between subjects within class. All the rest of the variation is within subjects. Subjects can be tested to determine whether they responded similarly or differently to treatment and the evidence will indicate whether they can be categorised as individuals or members of a class. If the subject / treatment variance within class is significantly greater than the subject/trial variance within treatment within class then they are classified as individuals. For example if a child's weight is recorded twice daily , each day for one month, the total variation may be analysed in terms of continuous growth, regular daily fluctuation and accidental fluctuations, then tested to see whether the first two are greater than the third. One child would be enough. Including others would help test the significance of individual differences. In geometrical terms the results for an individual from such an experiment are a set of points which are not scattered at random but form an orderly, unique array.

Many things can be assessed in such a way. A teacher

assesses pupils, art critics assess shows, television viewers assess weekly programmes and so on. Each has his own criteria for judging. If assessment occured on a numerical scale, the operation of judging the things according to the criteria would generate a set of commensurate numbers which may be listed in a two-way table involving rows of criteria and columns of things judged intersecting at the points of assessment.

Such ordered arrays are the bases of what Kelly (1955) termed the repertory grid.

2. George Kelly and the Repertory Grid

In 1955 George Kelly published his two-volume "Psychology of Personal Constructs" which introduced both his theory of personality, termed Personal Construct Theory [P.C.T], and methods suitable for researching the theory. He holds as central to his theory one fundamental postulate,

> "A person's processes are psychologically channelized by the ways in which he anticipates events." (1955)

A basic assumption within the theory is that each individual processes the data of everyday life in an attempt to predict and control his/her environment. In our attempt to interpret and classify we are most strongly influenced by other people and their behaviours. So an individual may be classified as "nice" or "pushy", "successful", "sensitive", and so on. I may classify myself similarly . According to Kelly these terms refer not to

specific actions or behaviours but to interpretations of whatever occurred. Thus many specific actions could lead to the interpretation of "emotional".

According to Kelly's fundamental postulate each individual is completely influenced by the labels he/she places on people and events. Furthermore my way of construing events is personal to me. The emphasis is upon the individual and the explanation of idiosyncracies within his/her cognitve processes rather than of "average" humans. Kelly seeks to determine the categories by which individuals seek similarities within diverse events. These categories he terms personal constructs. They guide an individual's perception, actions, expectations, and responses. Kelly (1955) defines constructs as follows:-

> "A construct is formally and operationally defined by a way in which two things are alike and by the same token different from a third."

He is not interested in whether the construct label is true or truer than any other. Instead, he is interested in the person who uses the construct and how this person uses it. Kelly supports his fundamental postulate with eleven corollories which are used by him to explain how constructs might influence behaviour. To understand a construct, Kelly maintains that we need to know what it means and what it does not mean to the person using it, and we need to know the range of elements to which it is applied. "Good" can be the opposite of "bad" to many people But to some "fun loving" could be the opposite to "bad". Each construct is

seen as a dichotomy and the two opposing poles are individual and personal to the construer. The range of elements to which each construct is applied is also finite and personal. According to Kelly, each construct must apply to three elements as a minimum (usually people); two who are alike in some respect and constitute a category, and one who is different and so illustrates the opposite pole.

With a clearer idea of the respective poles for constructs and the range of elements to which the constructs are applied, Kelly maintains we gain a clearer idea of how an individual interprets events and how that in turn will affect his/her expectations and actions. If I construe a situation as "impossible" or "dangerous" I will probably behave differently than if I construe the situation as "challenging" providing I don't use those constructs in very similar ways.

Kelly was fascinated by the possibility that individuals can live next door to each other, even in the same house, but have altogether different subjective worlds. He accepted the influence of experience on personal constructs in validating or invalidating them. However, he saw experience as the successive construing of events rather than what happens around us. Nothing in the environment is functionally distinguished from anything else. Thus everything acts as experience in the same way. Kelly doesn't inform us of what kinds of experience invalidate constructs or cause them to be reconstrued, yet this is a crucial way in which the external world

influences the internal world (Bavelas, 1978).

However, grid technique and Kelly's theory are not indispensable to each other (Slater, 1977). The theory can be formulated without reference to the technique and put into practice without it. Similarly while personal construct theory can explain the method and interpret the results from grids it cannot claim a monopoly of the technique (Moreno, 1934; Stephenson, 1935, 1936, 1953; Osgood, 1957; Slater, 1976). Slater was interested in the grid's potential as a measurement of variation within the intrapersonal space of an individual as a sophisticated mathematical process without the strictures of any one particular theoretical framework. He saw the dispersion in a grid as microcosmic where the coordinate system of elements and constructs records the distinctions an individual makes between certain things as they appear to him on a particular occasion.

3. What is the Repertory Grid?

The repertory grid is a particular form of structured interview. It is an attempt to stand in others' shoes to see their world as they see it and to understand their situation and concerns. By assigning mathematical relationships to a person's constructs we are able to focus on particular subsystems while continuing to note what is individual and surprising about the structure and content of a person's outlook on the world. Kelly (1970) defined a construct as:-

> "...like a reference axis, a basic dimension of appraisal, often unverbalized, frequently unsymbolised and occasionally unsignified in any manner except by the mental processes it governs. Behaviourally it can be regarded as an open channel of movement, and the system of constructs provides each man with his own personal network of action pathways, serving both to limit his movements and to open up to him passages of freedom which otherwise would be psychologically non-existant."

The results from grids can be looked upon as a sort of ideographic cartography as contrasted with the nomothetic cartography of the semantic differential (Osgood, Tannenbaum and Succi, 1957).

A repertory grid is composed of n-constructs applied to n-elements containing (n m)total entries, n(n-1)/2 correlations between constructs and m(m-1)/2 measurements of distance between elements. Component space will be limited to n or m-1 dimensions whichever is the smaller. Elements have traditionally been important people in the individual's life but have expanded into relationships (Ryle and Breen, 1972), roles (Chetwynd, 1976), drugs (Mitcheson, 1968), resorts (Riley, , 1976), architecture (Honikman, 1976) to name but a few alternatives. A method of scaling, such as a five or seven point scale with neutrality or uncertainty usually in the centre, is presented. Five point scales are most often chosen and appear to be very little less sensitive to variation than

seven point scales (Slater, 1977) since informants tend to ignore grades two and six thus reducing seven-point to five-point scales.

4. Issues in the use of repertory grids.

A. Eliciting versus provision of constructs.

Constructs may be elicited or supplied, the former being where the informant provides without any suggestion from the interviewer, and the latter where the interviewer supplies without suggestion from the informant. As a generalization, provided constructs and elements are likely to occur in larger research efforts involving groups of people and elicited constructs and elements in clinical, case studies or smaller research activities. Constructs finally included should allow contrast between elements, diverge in content and apply to all elements in some degree.

It is not surprising that a person regards his/her own constructs, generally speaking, as more important to him/her than those selected from a pool of constructs (Adams-Webber, 1979). Another's constructs may not be precisely as useful to you as your own. However, in eliciting or supplying constructs the verbal label is used to which informants have attached their own meanings. Consequently all constructs are "personal" in the sense that providing that they are not gibberish to the informant, each person is able to place that construct's dimension over elements and make something of them (Slater,

1976). So in some situations different techniques are preferred. For instance if it is suspected that an informant may not necessarily give his/her most important constructs in very personal areas of clinical investigation then provision of at least some constructs is preferable (Fransella and Bannister, 1977).

Alternatively an interplay of ideas and suggestions may blur the degree of elicitation or provision. In other studies, such as those comparing relationships of specific labels, provided constructs may be required.

Problems related to supplying constructs revolve around the need for their being meaningful within the informant's repertoire. Some of the grid matrix variance will inevitably reflect a degree of failure by the subject to translate them into his/her own terms. A usual tactic to overcome this problem is to collect a sample of constructs from a comparable group and so improve the chances of providing constructs which can be meaningfully applied by each informant.

There is no definite evidence to indicate that constructs should not be provided and in fact evidence exists to illustrate how provided constructs can produce meaningful results (Nystedt, Ekehammer and Kuusiner, 1976) and are significantly related to an informant's behaviour (Fransella and Bannister, 1967).

B. Elements and the Dyad Grid

As with constructs, elements must be meaningful to

informants. From that basic tenet onwards, the choice of elements will largely depend on the reasons for the research. Ryle and Lunghi (1970) developed the dyad grid where relationships between pairs of people were used as each element. Names of significant others were collected and selected pairs generated two elements (e.g. A to B and B to A; me to my mother and my mother to to me etc.). The list of elements is then rated against the constructs and submitted to INGRID computer analysis to give the element distances, construct correlations and principal components analyses also available to other grid forms. By such a dyad grid the "in general" application of constructs to elements which leads to information loss in most grids is reduced. (Ryle and Lunghi, 1970). Hence the construct "is understanding" can be illustrated more specifically in the relationship between person A to person B rather than as a general trait of A. Similarly the degree to which person A displays understanding to persons C and D as distinct from person B can also be measured. Person A's perception of understanding displayed to him/her from persons B, C and D can also be shown. The double dyad grid exists when other members of the element list also complete grids allowing comparisons of perceptions.

C. Grouping of grids.

Fransella (1975) states that when both constructs and elements are supplied by the investigator then rankings or ratings of individuals can be averaged for a group of

people. This averaging procedure produces a consensus grid which is then analysed in the same way as an individual grid (Slater, 1970; Ryle and Lunghi, 1972; Ryle and Breen, 1974; Kotler and Chetwynd, 1980; Parker, 1981; Ryle, 1980). To do this the group of grids aligned by both element and construct are submitted to the SERIES programme (Slater, 1975) for analysis. From this the 'average' or 'typical' group member can be drawn by submitting the resultant grid to principal components analysis with the INGRID programme. Detailed analysis of the differences between two such consensus grids obtained from twos eparate groups can be obtained using the DELTA programme Slater, 1975).

Tagg (1977) and Yorke (1978), however, have raised concerns related to assumptions by investigators that consensus exists in the perception of elements and constructs, and that insufficient attention is paid to variance within matrices leading to inappropriate generalizations. Beail (1984) stated that as yet the implications of such criticisms are untested. It may well be that while provision of group elements and constructs is preferred to elicited versions because of their amenability to group analysis the greatest value could be in the provision of hypotheses of group differences which may then be tested idiographically.

D. Reliability and significance

It may seem perfectly reasonable to stipulate that a grid should be reliable and significant if important decisions depend on the results from it. To determine if a test is reliable it should be given twice within a reasonable period of time to a random sample of the population from which the research sample came. The correlation between the grids on the two occasions is the measure of the test's reliability. A grid is frequently administered to one person on one occasion often at the time of construction. Its primary interest is in what it shows directly - namely the subject's state of mind at the interview. Frequently its predictive value for estimating what is to be expected in another case on another occasion may not be considered and in fact constructs may be chosen which register changes in mental states. Kelly (1955) rejected the concept of reliability because an apparent low reliability in a test may represent sensitivity to fluctuations in functions being measured, and his own interest was in the fluctuations. Slater (1975) argues that for similar reasons the criteria of significance and reliability proposed by statistical theory are inappropriate and inapplicable.

Bannister and Fransella (1979) highlight specific problems of reliability where the grid is concerned simply because there is no such thing as THE grid. Given the multiplicity of form, content and analysis in grids we are

unable to talk of THE reliability of THE grid. Similarly there is just as little justification in referring to THE reliability of THE questionnaire. It is a matter of what questionnaire is administered in what area, to what kind of subjects, under what conditions, and analysed in what kind of manner.

Whilst acknowledging the role of repertory grids in identifying changed states of mind, users of grids, to have their wares accepted by mainstream psychology, need some measures to indicate that their results are neither obtained from transient states of unknown importance nor from random processes.

A number of reliability co-effecients have been obtained on various grid types (Bannister, 1960; Bonarius, 1965; Bannister and Mair, 1968; Landsdown, 1975; Ryle, 1975; Sperlinger, 1976; Honess, 1976) reporting a moderate reliability between 0.60 and 0.80 but ranging mostly between 0.30 and 0.98 (Bannister and Fransella, 1979). Reliabilities have been found to vary according to grid type used (Beail, 1984), intensity of construing (Bannister, Fransella and Agnew, 1971), stability of constructs (Hunt, 1978), stability of elements (Pederson, 1965), population variance (Bannister and Fransella, 1966) and element variance (Bannister and Mair, 1968). The possible number of reliability co-efficients increases enormously when it is considered that the above conditions

are additive in their effects. Thus not only are there many different measures to be derived from the grid, but each measure can almost invariably be derived from grids which have varying elements and constructs. The grid can not only be applied to varying individuals but to varying populations of individuals with varying models of administration and with varying validational fortunes.

It appears sensible, therefore, to regard reliability as the name for an area of inquiry into the way in which people maintain or alter their construing and to estimate the value of the grid not in terms of whether it has high or low reliability but whether or not it is an instrument which enables us to effectively enquire into how humans construe.

In this first study no specific hypotheses were formulated as the grid was used as an experimental device for exploring the perception of families in order to raise issues rather than provide answers. A major value of issues raised by the grid lies in their relationship to whatever other validatory or objective data are compared with them. The purpose of this part of of the study was therefore, to see how far certain grid features differed systematically between a group of parents experiencing difficulties with aggressive children and a group of parents with at least one offspring who was highly-socialized.

Method

1. Subjects and procedure

Forty-two parents with problems of aggressive target children and forty parents with highly-socialized target children were administered the dyad grid (Ryle and Lunghi, 1970), a modification of Kelly's standard grid technique (See Appendices Four and Five). The grids were administered to each parent at the end of the laboratory activities shared with their families. All parents completed the grid in which the elements were relationships within the nuclear family. Depending on family size this created between ten and eighteen relationship elements to be completed by each parent. A total of thirteen constructs were provided, rather than elicited, for ease of research and group comparisons, in spite of some loss of data from each individual. Also it was impracticable to attempt elicitation of constructs with each parent during an evening of observation and at a time when their children were elsewhere engaged in completing dyad grids for approximately half an hour only. Elicitation could have taken one hour per parent.

Constructs were chosen from a pool constructed by gleaning important constructs from much available clinical literature on families (Ryle and Breen, 1974; Lewis and Feiring, 1978; and others). Constructs considered important by therapists and also by families were included in the pool which was discussed with an experienced clinician to

remove any serious anomalies. The thirteen most frequently listed unipolar constructs were chosen to represent issues of co-operation and coercion and the dyad relationship elements to which they were applied are listed in Appendix One.

Each parent rated the relationship elements against the constructs using a five-point scale. Rating was completed across each element rather than down one element at a time to hinder any impression management of particular relationships which any subject may attempt. Completion time varied between fifteen and thirty minutes.

2. Analysis

The grids obtained were analysed on the INGRID programme (Slater, 1972). This programme yields measures for the variance accounted for by each construct and each element, tables of construct correlations and of element distances, and the principal component analysis of each grid. The loadings of each construct and each element on the principal component are given and the total variance accounted for by the components is provided. The components are ordered from largest to smallest and each one refers both to an axis in the element space and to a corresponding axis in the construct space.

As in each group only five families contained two children, twelve families had three children and four families had four children, it was decided to analyse only that data available to all grids. That involved

relationships between spouses, spouses and target children and spouses and child nearest in age to the target child. Therefore, the analysis included thirteen constructs and ten elements giving a one hundred and thirty point matrix.

3. Interpreting Grids

A. INGRID

Often there is much to be learned about a subject's construct system from examining the correlations between the constructs. Indeed they are sometimes treated as the only results from a grid that need detailed attention. Angular distances between the constructs printed alongside the correlations describe the dispersion of constructs in the element space. No matter what method has been used for evaluating the elements the variance of every construct is implicitly reduced to one when the correlations are calculated. Consequently they are all placed at an equal distance from a common origin in the element space and differ only by scattering away from it in different directions. They lie on the surface of a hypersphere and the difference between any two of them can be expressed as an angular distance. An angle of zero degrees corresponds to a correlation of +1.0. It implies that the constructs are located at the same point on the hypersphere. An angle of ninety degrees corresponds with a correlation of 0.0. It implies that the constructs are independent of one another. An angle of one hundred and eighty degrees corresponds with a correlation of -1.0. The two constructs are located diametrically opposite to one another; one provides the

same scale of measurement as the other, but in reverse.

It can be an advantage to consider the angular distances between constructs rather than their correlations as the average of a set of angles is itself an angle whereas the average of a set of correlations is not itself a correlation.

The importance of an element in the construct system is indicated by the proportional size of its sum of squares. If it is small the subject would have rated the element neither high nor low but near the mean on all constructs. This would indicate an indifferent attitude towards that element. Conversely a salient element would have relatively large sums of squares and would appear important in the construct system whether an attitude towards it was favourable or unfavourable.

It is worthwhile to identify the salient elements and constructs within a subject's grid. When a few account for a large proportion of the total variation it is expected that their location in the respective construct and element spaces will determine the orientation of the major axes of the dispersion there.

The component space in INGRID is limited to the number of non-zero latent roots found. These roots are listed from the largest to the smallest as observed quantities and as percentages of the total variation. Usually just a few of the latent roots - seldom more than three - account for a very large proportion of the total. When this is so, much of the information concerning the relationships of the

constructs and the elements with one another can be shown by mapping their dispersion on the axes of the major components. This mapping is not part of the INGRID output so will be explained at a later point.

The Bartlett test (Bartlett, 1950, 1951a, 1951b.) involving the chi square is applied to all of the latent roots by comparing the least-but-one with the very least, then the least-but-two with the two very least, etc. However, reservations exist (Slater, 1975) over the use of the Bartlett test with grids as paradoxical results have been obtained. Results not readily acceptable nor easily explained away have occasionally been obtained from the Bartlett test during the course of its use with grids. This may be related to issues of significance and reliability with the use of grids. Consequently, the Bartlett test is used with caution.

If three or more components are listed then polar co-ordinates for the constructs and elements are given. These are calculated from their loadings on the components. The co-ordinates can be used for plotting points for the constructs and elements on the surface of a sphere. This will indicate the angular distances between them as well as three-dimensional space permits. As the first three components often account for as much as ninety per cent of the total variation in grids, a high level of accuracy can often be attained. Vertical, horizontal and radial co-ordinates are provided with the former two V and H, locating points. The usual convention is that component one

runs from front to back (0 degrees, 0 degrees to ± 180 degrees), that of the second from east to west (+90 degrees, 0 degrees to -90 degrees,0 degrees) and the third from north to south (0 degrees, +90 degrees to 0 degrees, -90 degrees). A point on the equator with H = 0 degrees and V = 0 degrees is selected as the origin. Positive values of H and V are obtained by moving eastwards to the right and upwards to the north for the respective co-ordinates. Negative values are respectively to the west and south. The radial measurement, R, mainly indicates how far onto the vector of the element and construct projects onto the subspace described within the entire component space by the components. If it is not greater than 0.70 then the element or construct does not project as far there as onto the subspace of the minor components. Thus its relationship to them is worth investigating. To obtain the opposite end of a construct pole 180 degrees is subtracted from positive H or 180 degrees added to negative H and the sign of V is simply changed.

Diagrammatic representation of the polar constructs is possible using a geographer's globe cut through centre from north to south and hinged at the west. Thus the two halves of the globe with their own north, south, east and west are available for co-ordinate plotting. Using the angular distances, co-ordinates of elements and constructs can then be mapped on to the surface of the globe for interpretation.

B. SERIES

When a number of grids are collected referring to the same N constructs and M elements the SERIES programme can be used to extract a consensus grid of occasion means for each construct for separate analysis or for comparison with individual grids. An analysis of variance is included. Submitting the SERIES grid to INGRID analysis allows a picture of the "typical" group member to be drawn - or in this case the "typical" group relationships. Other programmes such as COIN and ADELA allow group analysis of grids when aligned by construct and not by element, and by element but not by construct respectively.

Results

The INGRID principal components programme is used to analyse the consensus grids of, firstly, fathers of aggressive children, secondly, fathers of highly-socialized children, thirdly, mothers of aggressive children, and fourthly, mothers of highly-socialized children. Preliminary results are reported first in each section. These consist of comparing inter-construct correlations and noting differences in element salience, remembering that each element represents a relationship. Next to be reported in each section are the principal components analyses where up to the first three components are reported, depending on the amount of variation contributed by each component. Finally, in each section a diagrammatic representation of the element and construct relationships is provided by the use of the Mercatori globe.

1. Fathers of aggressive children.

The means obtained by making the grid of each father available to SERIES analysis created a consensus grid as given in Appendix 3.1 which was then submitted to INGRID analysis.

A. Preliminary results

Correlations between the constructs are given in Table 3.1. The most clearly associated constructs were GIVES INTO with DEPENDENT, AFFECTIONATE with TRUSTING, UNDERSTANDS

Table 3.1. Inter-correlations and angular distances between constructs for fathers of aggressive children. Consensus Grid.

Construct 1										
2	0.302	72.43	3	-0.740	137.73	4	0.843	32.57	5	-0.289	106.77
6	-0.641	129.84	7	0.649	49.57	8	-0.471	118.11	9	0.362	68.79
10	0.591	53.80	11	-0.468	117.93	12	0.598	53.24	13	0.475	61.63
Construct 2										
3	0.238	76.21	4	0.098	84.39	5	0.462	62.46	6	-0.697	134.22
7	0.773	39.39	8	-0.563	124.23	9	-0.444	116.34	10	0.079	85.48
11	0.205	78.17	12	0.823	34.61	13	-0.430	115.45			
Construct 3										
4	-0.694	133.94	5	0.314	71.73	6	0.188	79.16	7	-0.105	96.03
8	0.069	86.04	9	-0.639	129.75	10	-0.431	115.54	11	0.805	36.39
12	-0.041	92.34	13	-0.612	127.72						
Construct 4										
5	-0.284	106.47	6	-0.410	114.19	7	0.441	63.84	8	-0.270	105.65
9	0.583	54.34	10	0.511	59.24	11	-0.592	126.33	12	0.576	54.85
13	0.737	42.56									
Construct 5										
6	0.204	78.24	7	0.174	79.96	8	0.145	81.63	9	-0.123	97.07
10	-0.142	98.18	11	0.054	86.93	12	0.212	77.73	13	-0.377	112.12
Construct 6										
7	-0.662	131.48	8	0.555	56.32	9	0.224	77.04	10	-0.034	91.92
11	-0.055	93.13	12	-0.690	133.65	13	-0.001	90.06			
Construct 7										
8	-0.730	136.91	9	-0.291	106.90	10	0.317	71.52	11	-0.043	92.47
12	0.845	32.34	13	-0.120	96.87						
Construct 8										
9	0.481	61.28	10	-0.478	118.54	11	0.051	87.06	12	-0.599	126.80
13	0.327	70.89									
Construct 9										
10	0.360	68.91	11	-0.466	117.77	12	-0.048	92.77	13	0.868	29.76
Construct 10										
11	-0.327	109.11	12	0.354	69.29	13	0.209	77.95			
Construct 11										
12	0.003	89.86	13	-0.367	111.51						
Construct 12										
13	0.072	85.87									

Table 3.2. Linear distances between the relationships [elements] for fathers of aggressive children. Consensus Grid.

ELEMENTS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Me to sp.		0.517	1.453	1.173	1.315	1.059	1.423	1.247	1.108	0.792
2 Sp. to me			1.219	1.132	1.111	0.978	1.112	1.160	0.757	0.905
3 Me to target				0.913	0.631	1.080	0.476	1.007	0.830	1.261
4 Target to me					1.083	0.673	0.965	0.599	1.188	0.726
5 Me to nearest						0.992	0.652	1.126	0.577	1.158
6 Nearest to me							1.034	0.717	0.993	0.510
7 Sp. to target								0.912	0.639	1 236
8 Target to sp.									1.155	0.796
9 Sp. to nearest										1.159
10 Nearest to sp.										

with SUPPORTS and LOOKS AFTER with SUPPORTS. The group of constructs LOOKS AFTER, UNDERSTANDS and SUPPORTS correlated between 0.77 and 0.84 with each other. Negative associations illustrate a view that CROSSNESS does not occur with AFFECTION or TRUST and suggested that these men may have difficulties in seeing anger as a productive process. Certainly CROSSNESS carries a 0.80 association with CRITICISES and that, to them, is associated with a lack of TRUST.

From Table 3.2 it can be seen that close relationships are perceived to exist within families. They are firstly, how both parents react to the aggressive target children (A); secondly, how the children nearest in age (B) to the target children react to both parents; and thirdly, how both parents react to each other. Further comparison of element distances shows each of those three relationships to be separate from each other, suggesting that some clear boundary delineations exist between family members.

The most dissimilar relationships were perceived to be between how parents treat each other in contrast to how they treat the target child. The pattern of element distances also suggests that how the nearest-aged child and both parents treat each other is not as far apart as how target children and both parents treat each other. The suggestions from these results is that the aggressive target children are perceived by their fathers as having the most distance from others in their relationships.

B. Principal component results.

The latent roots (or eigenvalue) as used in the grid is a measure of the relative importance of each component. The latent roots of the first three components accounted for 87% of the observed variation.

The loadings of the constructs and the elements listed in Appendix 3.2 indicate the psychological contents of the three principal components.

Component One

Positive Pole	Negative Pole
Elements	
1. Myself to my spouse	3. Me to target(A)
10. Nearest age(B) to mother	7. Spouse to target(A)
2 My spouse to me	8. Me to nearest age(B)
Constructs	
13. Is dependent on	4. Cross
4. Trusts	
9. Gives in to	
1. Affectionate to	

Component one can be interpreted as measuring the approval/disapproval felt by these men. Approval is largely associated with the spousal relationship, and disapproval largely with the target child.

Component Two

Positive Pole	Negative Pole
Elements	
8. Target(A) to spouse	9. My spouse to nearest-
4. Target(A) to me	age(B)

2. My spouse to me

1. Myself to my spouse

Constructs

6. Ignores

8. Is scared of

2. Looks after

7. Understands

12. Supports

This component can be interpreted within a disaffiliation/acceptance framework with again the coercive behaviour of target children towards others differentiated from other family relationships.

The third component contributed a much smaller 8.8% of the variance and is related to generalized vague feelings about parental relationships with the nearest-aged children, while the opposite pole is more associated with perception of crossness and dependency by both their wives towards the men, and the target children towards their mothers.

C. Diagrammatic representation.

The polar co-ordinates listed in INGRID allow diagrammatic representation of the dispersion of all the functions in the space of the three major components. This allows more accurate angular distances between the functions to be obtained compared to when only two components are used. The axis for a construct is obtained from its loadings and then marked by diametrically opposite points on the circumference of the circle. Usually if both points of the construct are marked then it is sufficient to

mark one point for the element. The relationship elements are joined by dyad lines. Figure 3.1 illustrates such a diagrammatic representation. The horizontal and vertical co-ordinates are written along the x and y axis respectively. The diagram illuminates associations between particular elements and constructs whether they fall in line with any component or not.

The spousal relationships are described as being typified by TRUST, SUPPORT, UNDERSTANDING and AFFECTION with the men seeing themselves highest in TRUST and AFFECTION for their wives, and the women as highest in SUPPORT, TRUST and AFFECTION for their husbands. Interestingly the men saw themselves as more DEPENDENT ON their wives than their wives were on them. While they felt that both tended not to IGNORE each other, their wives were described as being even less IGNORING than the man in the spousal relationship. Cosines are mathematically equivalent to correlations and can be interpreted as such. So Table 3.3 using cosines illustrates more precisely the relationship between constructs and elements. Notice the extremely high association (0.968) between TRUST and how men relate to their wives.

Reference to Figure 3.1 indicates two distinct clusterings. Similarities are perceived firstly between how the parents react towards the target children, and secondly how those target children in turn respond to both parents. Fathers see both parents as being largely negative towards that child. Associations which fathers make (Table 3.3)

Table 3.3. Relations between constructs and elements expressed as cosines for fathers of aggressive children. Consensus Grid.

Construct 1 with element											
1	0.855	2	0.793	3	-0.708	4	-0.526	5	-0.207	6	0.034
7	-0.618	8	-0.565	9	0.255	10	0.426				
Construct 2 with element											
1	0.164	2	0.529	3	0.357	4	-0.884	5	0.416	6	-0.686
7	0.365	8	-0.793	9	0.806	10	-0.678				
Construct 3 with element											
1	-0.687	2	-0.409	3	0.762	4	-0.004	5	0.321	6	-0.559
7	0.906	8	0.289	9	0.285	10	-0.805				
Construct 4 with element											
1	0.968	2	0.784	3	-0.755	4	-0.276	5	-0.463	6	0.040
7	-0.800	8	-0.233	9	-0.054	10	0.491				
Construct 5 with element											
1	-0.12	2	-0.105	3	0.687	4	0.235	5	0.340	6	-0.602
7	0.293	8	-0.398	9	0.028	10	-0.451				
Construct 6 with element											
1	-0.379	2	-0.790	3	0.283	4	0.749	5	-0.012	6	0.144
7	0.004	8	0.645	9	-0.748	10	0.260				
Construct 7 with element											
1	0.502	2	0.659	3	-0.136	4	-0.730	5	0.356	6	-0.624
7	0.036	8	-0.748	9	0.717	10	-0.317				
Construct 8 with element											
1	-0.206	2	-0.394	3	0.066	4	0.908	5	-0.584	6	0.359
7	-0.056	8	0.531	9	-0.740	10	0.264				
Construct 9 with element											
1	0.658	2	0.277	3	-0.551	4	0.456	5	-0.800	6	0.365
7	-0.796	8	0.221	9	-0.765	10	0.818				
Construct 10 with element											
1	0.532	2	0.261	3	-0.262	4	-0.430	5	0.034	6	-0.111
7	-0.433	8	-0.227	9	-0.018	10	0.451				
Construct 11 with element											
1	-0.545	2	-0.144	3	0.443	4	-0.101	5	0.054	6	-0.446
7	0.837	8	0.259	9	0.287	10	-0.557				
Construct 12 with element											
1	0.624	2	0.827	3	-0.082	4	-0.687	5	0.054	6	-0.616
7	-0.046	8	-0.615	9	0,566	10	-0.324				
Construct 13 with element											
1	0.734	2	0.482	3	-0.810	4	0.312	5	-0.885	6	0.324
7	-0.784	8	0.304	9	-0.593	10	0.753				

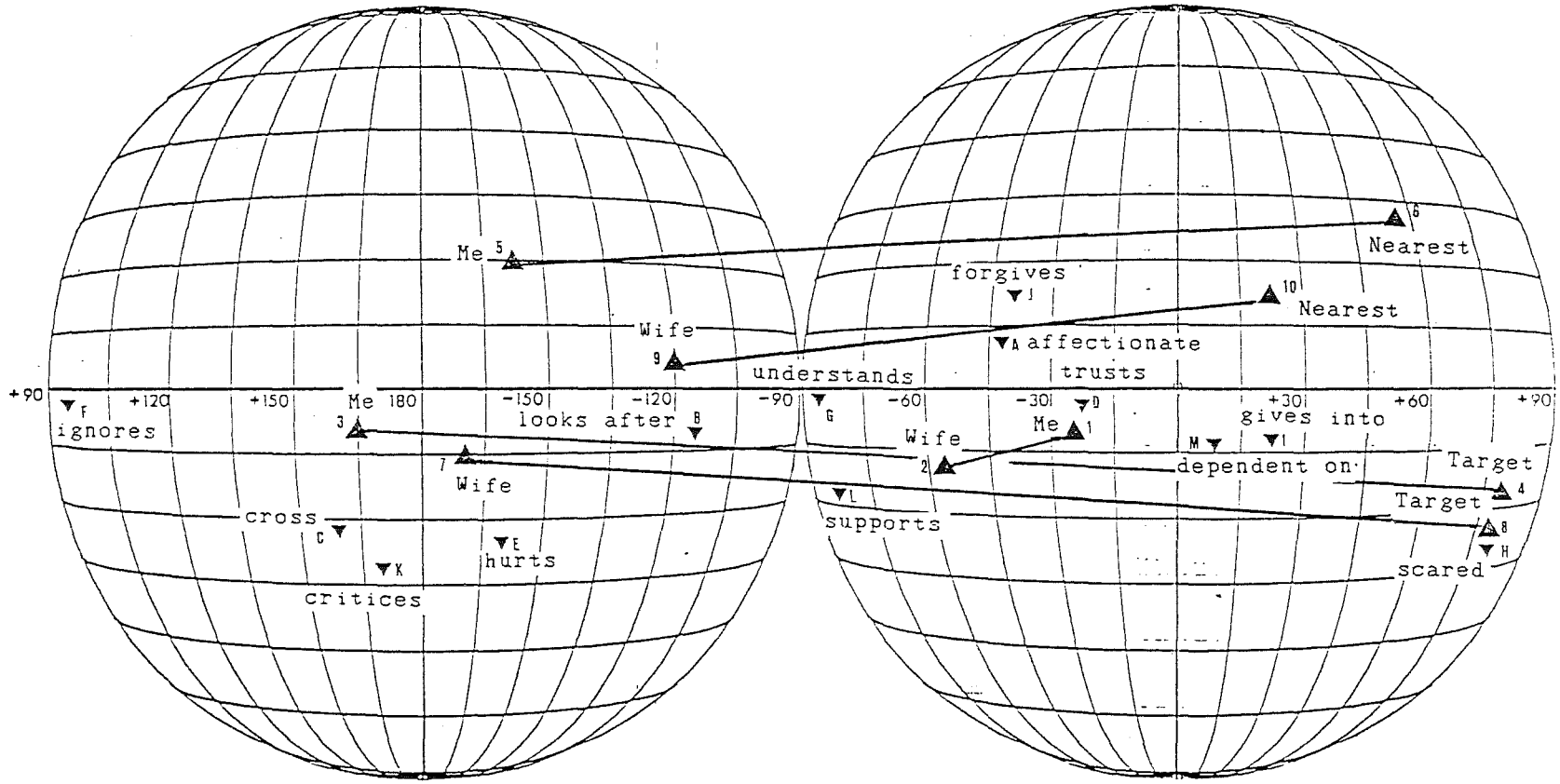

Fig. 3.1 Composite diagram for components 1, 2, & 3 for fathers of aggressive children. Consensus Grid.

▼ indicates the position of the constructs

▲ indicates the position of the elements

between their target children and their construct system include 0.76 with CROSS, 0.69 with HURTS and -0.810 with DEPENDENT ON, -0.755 with TRUST and -0.708 with AFFECTION. They perceive their wives' relationships with the target children involving CROSSNESS (0.906), CRITICISM (0.830), little TRUST (-0.800), little GIVING IN TO (-0.786) and little DEPENDENCY (-0.784).

Similarly negatively perceived are the behaviours of the target children to their parents which largely involve IGNORING and lack of both UNDERSTANDING and LOOKING AFTER. The strongest association is between the element target children to fathers and the construct SCARED OF.

The second set of groupings show a similar, but less pronounced trend of how parents relate to the nearest-age children. Those children are perceived as responding consistently to both parents. Fathers see both parents as largely not GIVING IN TO nearest-age children while their wives are perceived as more LOOKING AFTER, UNDERSTANDING and less IGNORING of those children. Apart from not GIVING IN TO and not DEPENDENT ON, the fathers have a less clear view of their relationships with the nearest-aged children. In return those children are perceived as generally DEPENDENT ON and GIVING IN TO their mothers while neither LOOKING AFTER nor CROSS with their parents and low on SUPPORT for them.

One further comparison using the inter-element relations indicate what similarity the men perceive within their family relationships (Appendix 3.3). The spousal

relationships correlated 0.803 with each other and both parents reactions to the target children correlated 0.757. When compared to each other they were seen as two very dissimilar sets of relationships.

Most dissimilar were combinations of target and parent relationships compared with mother and nearest child relationships.

2. Fathers of highly socialised children.

The consensus grid obtained from SERIES (Appendix 3.4) and made available for INGRID analysis gave the following results

A. Preliminary results

Construct correlations showed the greatest associations to be between UNDERSTANDING, FORGIVES and SUPPORTS correlating between 0.858 and 0.900 with each other (Table 3.4). LOOKS AFTER is also highly associated with being AFFECTIONATE and CRITICISES. The constructs TRUSTS and DEPENDENT ON are also highly correlated.

The groupings suggest that CRITICISM has a place in the expressions of CARE and AFFECTION within the families of the men provided it is accompanied with the supporting processes that allow criticisms to be productive. Negative associations exist between the three constructs being scared of, AFFECTIONATE and LOOKING AFTER, and also IGNORING with LOOKING AFTER and AFFECTIONATE. CROSS and TRUST are more negatively associated than within the group

Table 3.4 Inter-correlations and angular distances between constructs for fathers of highly-socialized children. Consensus Grid.

Construct 1												
2	0.821	34.85	3	-0.121	96.95	4	0.307	72.10	5	-0.020	91.15
6	-0.766	140.01	7	0.636	50.48	8	-0.716	135.71	9	0.411	65.71
10	0.340	70.14	11	0.433	64.33	12	0.369	68.38	13	-0.061	93.48
Construct 2												
3	0.413	65.59	4	-0.044	92.54	5	0.198	78.58	6	-0.706	134.89
7	0.699	45.62	8	-0.822	145.29	9	0.392	66.94	10	0.445	63.57
11	0.786	38.18	12	0.566	55.55	13	-0.219	102.63			
Construct 3												
4	-0.722	136.18	5	0.427	64.74	6	-0.020	91.96	7	0.225	76.97
8	-0,281	106.32	9	0.050	87.15	10	0.211	77.80	11	0,589	53.90
12	0.326	70.96.	13	-0.510	120.66						
Construct 4												
5	-0.075	94.32	6	-0.511	120.72	7	0.121	82.03	8	0.256	75.17
9	0.221	77.22	10	0.031	88.22	11	-0.108	96.21	12	0.190	79.04
13	0.836	33.26									
Construct 5												
6	-0.074	94.25	7	0.109	83.74	8	0.202	78.34	9	-0.313	108.21
10	0.031	88.20	11	0.053	86.94	12	0.332	70.59	13	-0.236	103.66
Construct 6												
7	-0.542	122.83	8	0.377	67.83	9	-0.471	118.11	10	-0.236	103.68
11	-0.552	123.50	12	-0.451	116.78	13	-0.378	112.22			
Construct 7												
8	-0.640	129.83	9	0.599	53.21	10	0.900	25.81	11	0.671	47.89
12	0.858	30.91	13	-0.138	97.92						
Construct 8												
9	-0.419	114.79	10	-0.449	116.71	11	-0.598	126.70	12	-0.364	111.33
13	0.398	66.54									
Construct 9												
10	0.604	52.81	11	0.532	57.89	12	0.645	49.86	13	0.209	77.96
Construct 10												
11	0.594	53.56	12	0.869	29.65	13	-0.155	98.90			
Construct 11												
12	0.690	46.34	13	-0.026	91.50						
Construct 12												
13	0.055	86.86									

of men with aggressive children, however, with less loss of AFFECTION and a perception of CRITICISM which moderately associates it with numerous co-operatively related constructs.

Element linear distances in Table 3.5 indicate that the most similar relationships are seen as fathers to both their target and nearest-age children, target children to their parents, and nearest-aged to their parents. Further comparisons show the target and nearest-age children to behave similarly to their parents. The patterns of dissimilar relationships indicates differences between how adults and children behave towards each other without any pattern of child isolation occurring.

B. Principal components results.

The latent roots of the first three components account for 83% of the observed variation. Component one accounts for 48% of the variation.

Component One

Positive Pole	Negative Pole
Elements	
7. My spouse to nearest-age(B)	10. Nearest-aged(B) to spouse
1. Myself to my spouse	6. Nearest-age(B) to me
2. My spouse to me	4. Target(A) to me

Table 3.5. Linear distances between the relationships [elements] for fathers of highly-socialised children. Consensus Grid.

ELEMENTS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Me to sp.	0.629	0.787	1.199	0.178	1.308	1.077	1.189	1.046	1.388	
2 Sp. to me		0.812	1.131	0.853	1.278	0.943	1.224	0.955	1.395	
3 Me to target			0.912	0.528	1.297	0.537	1.083	0.673	1.381	
4 Target to me				1.034	0.593	0.899	0.379	1.012	0.819	
5 Me to nearest					1.251	0.549	1.038	0.625	1.295	
6 Nearest to me						1.190	0.589	1.101	0.455	
7 Sp. to target							1.012	0.435	1.258	
8 Target to sp.								1.102	0.704	
9 Sp. to nearest									1.170	
10 Nearest to sp.										

Constructs

11. Criticises	8. Is scared of
7. Understands	13. Is dependent on
1. Is affectionate to	
2. Looks after	

Component one may be reflecting the conditions under which these men experience feelings of closeness and distance within their families. Distance occurs when the children are perceived as being AFRAID of their parents, closeness especially within the mother to target child relationship, but also in the spousal relationship to a lesser extent when conflict can occur without the loss of co-operative constructs.

Component two contributed 24% of the observed variation.

Component Two

Positive Pole	Negative Pole
Elements	
1. Myself to my spouse	9. Spouse to nearest-age(B)
2. My spouse to me	5. Me to nearest-age(B)
	3. Me to target(A)
	7. Spouse to target(A)
Constructs	
13. Dependent on	3. Gets cross with

Component two may reflect parental coalition factors related to harmony and disharmony within the family.

The third component defined by element eight and

construct one describes the occurrence of AFFECTION from target children to their mothers' negative pole, defined by elements five and six and constructs three, eight and eleven, relates to the presence of CROSSNESS, SCARED OF and CRITICISM between the fathers and their nearest-age children. This component possibly measures conditions under which these men experience approval and disapproval within their families. Loadings for each element and construct in the three major component spaces are given in Appendix 3.5.

C. Diagrammatic representation.

Figure 3.2 displays a diagrammatic representation of the above results. The spousal relationship was described as moderately CRITICAL but SUPPORTIVE with men GIVING INTO their wives and being moderately DEPENDENT UPON and not IGNORING them. Their wives were described as being moderately AFFECTIONATE and LOOKING AFTER, but also CRITICAL and SUPPORTIVE. They were seen as IGNORING the men less than the men IGNORE their wives. Table 3.6 gives the construct-element relations expressed as cosines.

Fathers of highly-socialized children saw themselves as having a relationship with the target children involving FORGIVING (0.645) and low DEPENDENCY (-0.776). They described their wives' relationships with those children as involving LOOKING AFTER (0.767), UNDERSTANDING (0.722) and AFFECTION (0.626) without being SCARED OF those children (-0.722). Therefore, mothers were perceived as being emotionally closer to the target children. In return the

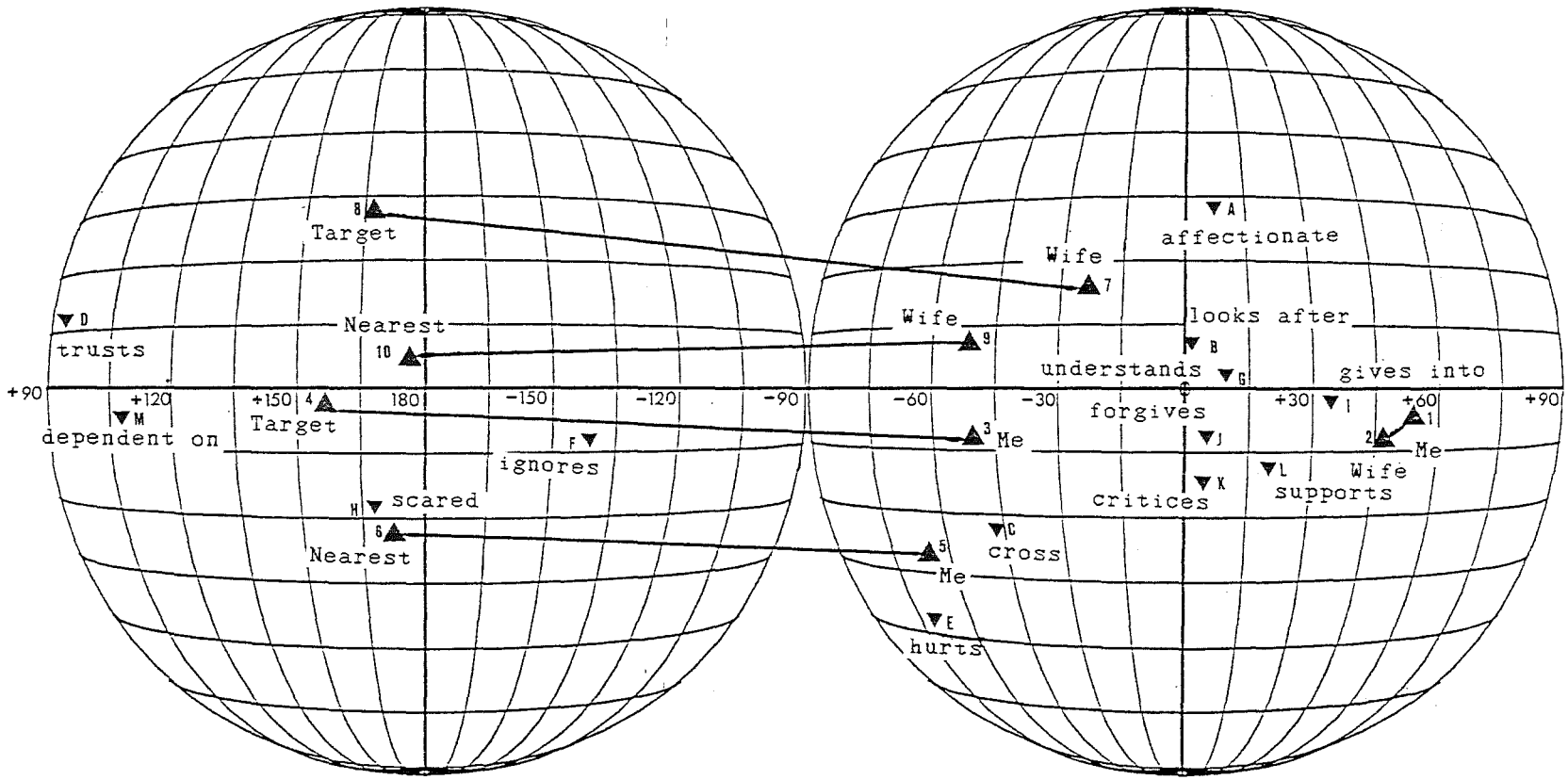

Fig. 3.2 Composite diagram for components 1, 2, & 3 for fathers of highly socialised children. Consensus Grid

▼ indicates the position of the constructs

▲ indicates the position of the elements

target children were described as SCARED OF their fathers. The presence of both AFFECTION and CROSSNESS was described as moderately low between fathers and target children. Target children were seen to relate to their mothers with little CRITICISM and CROSSNESS, and with moderately low LOOKING AFTER and SUPPORT of mothers.

Fathers described themselves as feeling CROSSER with the nearest-age children, low in TRUST and moderately low in DEPENDING UPON them. In return the children were seen as SCARED OF their fathers and very low in AFFECTION, LOOKING AFTER and UNDERSTANDING of their fathers. Mothers DEPENDED little on nearest-aged children and held low TRUST in them. They in turn were seen as not CRITICAL, but low in UNDERSTANDING, FORGIVENESS, SUPPORT and LOOKING AFTER their mothers.

Further comparison of the inter-element relations in Appendix 3.6 indicate that these fathers held clearer views on how others behaved than of their own behaviours in family relations. Figure 3.2 indicates fewer constructs clustered around the "me" end of relationships confirming comparative unawareness of their own behaviour. The target and nearest-age children are seen to behave moderately similarly to their parents. Mothers are described as reciprocating moderately similarly with both children. Dissimilarities occur between how parents, (usually mothers) and children differentially treat each other, rather than on the bases of differential treatment of individual children. Again fathers show no clear awareness

Table 3.6. Relations between constructs and elements expressed as cosines for fathers of highly-socialized children. Consensus Grid.

Construct 1 with element											
1	0.551	2	0.662	3	0.601	4	-0.122	5	0.284	6	-0.647
7	0.190	8	-0.225	9	-0.113	10	-0.848				
Construct 2 with element											
1	0.644	2	0.725	3	0.754	4	-0.737	5	0.162	6	-0.896
7	0.476	8	-0.846	9	0.439	10	-0.879				
Construct 3 with element											
1	-0.071	2	0.719	3	0.176	4	0.263	5	-0.024	6	0.184
7	-0.063	8	0.305	9	-0.100	10	0.130				
Construct 4 with element											
1	0.860	2	0.884	3	0.376	4	-0.484	5	0.162	6	-0.519
7	-0.130	8	-0.495	9	-0.110	10	-0.592				
Construct 5 with element											
1	0.782	2	0.741	3	0.068	4	-0.750	5	0.229	6	-0.274
7	-0.260	8	-0.687	9	0.117	10	-0.207				
Construct 6 with element											
1	-0.307	2	-0.045	3	-0.740	4	0.267	5	-0.672	6	0.828
7	-0.460	8	0.282	9	-0.418	10	0.742				
Construct 7 with element											
1	0.637	2	0.627	3	0.898	4	-0.607	5	0.558	6	-0.851
7	0.356	8	-0.771	9	0.300	10	-0.820				
Construct 8 with element											
1	-0.675	2	-0.491	3	-0.735	4	0,830	5	-0.661	6	0.855
7	-0.448	8	0.754	9	-0.439	10	0.712				
Construct 9 with element											
1	-0.180	2	-0.583	3	-0.573	4	0.682	5	-0.455	6	0.731
7	-0.672	8	0.886	9	-0.753	10	0.609				
Construct 10 with element											
1	0.074	2	0.453	3	0.675	4	-0.104	5	0.539	6	-0.662
7	0.693	8	-0.458	9	0.249	10	-0.877				
Construct 11 with element											
1	0.804	2	0.478	3	0.531	4	-0.714	5	0.800	6	-0.709
7	0.084	8	-0.465	9	0.018	10	-0.649				
Construct 12 with element											
1	0.392	2	0.469	3	0.833	4	-0.409	5	0.662	6	-0.791
7	0.643	8	-0.667	9	0.345	10	-0.971				
Construct 13 with element											
1	0.044	2	-0.040	3	-0.600	4	0.606	5	-0.700	6	0.746
7	-0.870	8	0.673	9	-0.910	10	0.524				

of their behaviours towards others apart from a moderately similar generally positive spousal relationship.

3. Mothers of aggressive children.

The means obtained by making the grid of each mother available for SERIES analysis created a consensus grid subsequently analysed by INGRID (Appendix 14).

A. Preliminary results.

Correlation constructs are given in Table 3.7. There are sixteen construct correlations above ±0.70. Highest positive correlations were between AFFECTIONATE and both FORGIVES and LOOKS AFTER. Highest negative correlations were between CROSS and UNDERSTANDS, and SCARED OF and SUPPORTS. The construct CROSS, also carried high negative correlation with TRUST and AFFECTION. Interestingly, the constructs GIVES INTO and SCARED OF were correlated -0.79 and -0.86 with SUPPORTS; also GIVING INTO, and SCARED OF correlate +0.56 suggesting that acceding to another's view may hold, for these mothers more coercive than co-operative connotations. As with their menfolk, crossness was seen as having little to do with supportive, affectionate relationships.

The most salient relationship for mothers of aggressive children were those involving the target children with both parents (Table 3.8). The three sets of closest relationships were firstly how the nearest-age children react to both parents, secondly, the reciprocal

Table 3.7. Inter-correlations and angular distances between constructs of mothers with aggressive children. Consensus Grid.

Construct 1												
2	0.453	63.08	3	-0.745	138.18	4	0.651	49.35	5	-0.637	129.58	
6	-0.728	136.75	7	0.765	40.11	8	-0.709	135.12	9	-0.302	107.58	
10	0.809	36.00	11	-0.101	95.81	12	0.699	45.65	13	0.106	83.93	
Construct 2												
3	-0.024	91.37	4	-0.149	98.55	5	-0.307	107.87	6	-0.644	130.07	
7	-0.004	90.25	8	-0.677	132.57	9	-0.585	125.80	10	0.816	35.27	
11	0.334	70.52	12	0.768	39.85	13	-0.791	142.24				
Construct 3												
4	-0.759	139.41	5	0.639	50.32	6	0.296	72.78	7	-0.874	150.94	
8	0.511	59.25	9	0.227	76.90	10	-0.389	112.87	11	0.491	60.61	
12	-0.519	121.23	13	-0.317	108.45							
Construct 4												
5	-0.209	102.06	6	-0.272	105.80	7	0.745	41.84	8	-0.431	115.52	
9	0.115	83.40	10	0.122	82.97	11	0.021	88.80	12	0.329	70.81	
13	0.550	56.66										
Construct 5												
6	0.465	62.27	7	-0.546	123.12	8	0.597	53.37	9	0.585	54.18	
10	-0.674	132.41	11	0.533	57.82	12	-0.565	124.42	13	0.029	88.35	
Construct 6												
7	-0.230	103.29	8	0.638	50.33	9	0.485	60.97	10	-0.738	137.59	
11	-0.279	106 18	12	-0.736	137.43	13	0.220	77.30				
Construct 7												
8	-0.543	122.86	9	0.056	86.81	10	0.431	64.44	11	-0.479	118.62	
12	0.346	69.75	13	0.403	66.21							
Construct 8												
9	0.543	57.14	10	-0.742	137.94	11	-0.140	98.05	12	-0.867	150.14	
13	0.336	70.37										
Construct 9												
10	-0.535	122.36	11	-0.069	93.93	12	-0.787	141.86	13	0.534	57.75	
Construct 10												
11	-0.043	92.45	12	0.759	40.60	13	-0.391	113.04				
Construct 11												
12	0.191	78.96	13	-0.301	107.53							
Construct 12												
13	-0.479	118.60										

spousal relationship, and thirdly parents behaviour to their target children.

Fathers and target children were described as behaving more similarly towards each other than do mothers and target offspring. Further, how nearest-age children and parents relate to each other is not seen to be as dissimilar as the relationship between target children and parents. Once more the suggestion is of greater distances in the relationships between aggressive target children and their parents.

B. Principal components results.

The latent roots of each component indicate their relative importance, and those of the first three components account for 87% of observed variation.The loadings of the constructs and elements on the first three major components are shown in Appendix 3.8. Component one accounts for 48.5% of the variation.

Component One

Positive pole	Negative pole
Elements	
4 Target(A) to me	2 Spouse to me
8. Target(A) to spouse	5 Spouse to target(A)

Table 3.8. Linear distances between the relationships [elements] for mothers of aggressive children. Consensus Grid.

ELEMENTS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Me to sp.	0.567	1.058	1.443	0.731	0.724	0.880	1.136	0.909	0.806	
2 Sp. to me		1.301	1.536	0.679	0.690	1.042	1.149	0.773	0.676	
3 Me to target			1.242	0.944	1.126	0.594	1.082	0.996	1.177	
4 Target to me				1.624	1.149	1.408	0.661	1.440	1.145	
5 Me to nearest					0.850	0.726	1.283	0.667	0.848	
6 Nearest to me						0.943	0.723	0.849	0.296	
7 Sp. to target							1.054	0.643	0.953	
8 Target to sp.								1.083	0.733	
9 Sp. to nearest									0.801	
10 Nearest to sp.										

Constructs

6	Ignores	2	Looks after
8	Scared of	12	Supports
9	Gives in		
5	Hurts		
3	Cross		

This component can be seen as reflecting the conditions under which mothers of aggressive children gain a sense of affiliation. Little affiliation is felt with the target child with the presence of coercively associated constructs. Affiliation is felt when they are able to LOOK AFTER and SUPPORT other family members.

Component Two

Positive pole		Negative pole	
Elements			
2	Spouse to me	3	Me to target(A)
6	Nearest-age(B) to me	7	Spouse to target(A)
10	Nearest-age(B) to spouse		
Constructs			
13	Dependent on	3	Cross
7	Understands	2	Looks after
4	Trusts		
1	Affectionate to		

These women gain a sense of acceptance when DEPENDENCY, UNDERSTANDING, TRUST and AFFECTION typify relationships.

The third component is comparatively small and is related at the positive pole to the degree of HURTING and

CRITICISM women feel from their spouses; and at the negative pole by the degree of father's IGNORING of the nearest-age children.

C. Diagrammatic representation.

Figure 3.3 illustrates the dispersion of all element and construct functions in the space of the three major components.

It can be seen that women perceive their husbands as AFFECTIONATE, TRUSTING and expressing little CROSSNESS to their wives. Women view themselves as moderately similar to their partners, expressing mainly TRUST. However, they perceive themselves more CRITICAL of their partners than the men are of them. Specific construct-element relationships displayed in Figure 3.3 are highlighted by the cosines listed in Table 3.9.

Clusterings can be identified which suggest clear ideas of how target childre relate to both parents. They are seen as UNSUPPORTIVE, UNFORGIVING, SCARED OF, GIVING INTO, HURTING, IGNORING, LACKING AFFECTION FOR and not LOOKING AFTER their mothers. A similarly coercive pattern emerges towards their fathers. In return mothers describe themselves as HURTING and not UNDERSTANDING their target offspring; while fathers are described more vaguely, but with low DEPENDENCY, and moderately low at GIVING IN and lower UNDERSTANDING of these children.

Nearest-age children are described as DEPENDENT ON their parents and not CRITICAL of fathers. Mothers again

Table 3.9. Relations between constructs and elements expressed as cosines for mothers of aggressive children. Consensus Grid.

Construct 1 with element											
1	0.659	2	0.854	3	-0.454	4	-0.742	5	0.694	6	0.353
7	-0.279	8	-0.667	9	0.143	10	0.258				
Construct 2 with element											
1	0.307	2	0.240	3	0.442	4	-0.755	5	0.869	6	-0.495
7	0.583	8	-0.885	9	0.512	10	-0.534				
Construct 3 with element											
1	-0.422	2	-0.953	3	0.829	4	0.491	5	-0.271	6	-0.395
7	0.458	8	0.261	9	0.261	10	-0.491				
Construct 4 with element											
1	0.771	2	0.799	3	-0.662	4	-0.196	5	0.002	6	0.399
7	-0.608	8	-0.181	9	-0.222	10	0.353				
Construct 5 with element											
1	-0.118	2	-0.566	3	0.561	4	0.750	5	-0.540	6	-0.403
7	-0.035	8	0.499	9	-0.552	10	-0.553				
Construct 6 with element											
1	-0.625	2	-0.467	3	-0.033	4	0.822	5	-0.783	6	-0.074
7	-0.275	8	0.723	9	0.045	10	0.022				
Construct 7 with element											
1	0.425	2	0.871	3	-0.824	4	-0.319	5	0.324	6	0.450
7	-0.633	8	-0.333	9	0.168	10	0.523				
Construct 8 with element											
1	-0.677	2	-0.655	3	0.221	4	0.784	5	-0.710	6	0.115
7	-0.223	8	0.911	9	-0.495	10	0.070				
Construct 9 with element											
1	-0.205	2	-0.224	3	-0.044	4	0.818	5	-0.466	6	0.135
7	-0.684	8	0.500	9	-0.632	10	0.223				
Construct 10 with element											
1	0.362	2	0.533	3	0.038	4	-0.863	5	0.936	6	0.029
7	0.181	8	-0.870	9	0.471	10	-0.036				
Construct 11 with element											
1	0.541	2	-0.280	3	0.670	4	-0.021	5	0.017	6	-0.436
7	0.417	8	-0.259	9	-0.326	10	-0.706				
Construct 12 with element											
1	0.629	2	0.648	3	-0.076	4	-0.930	5	0.735	6	-0.206
7	0.405	8	-0.817	9	0.516	10	-0.244				
Construct 13 with element											
1	0.108	2	0.190	3	-0.661	4	0.421	5	-0.543	6	0.840
7	-0.829	8	0.528	9	-0.614	10	0.703				

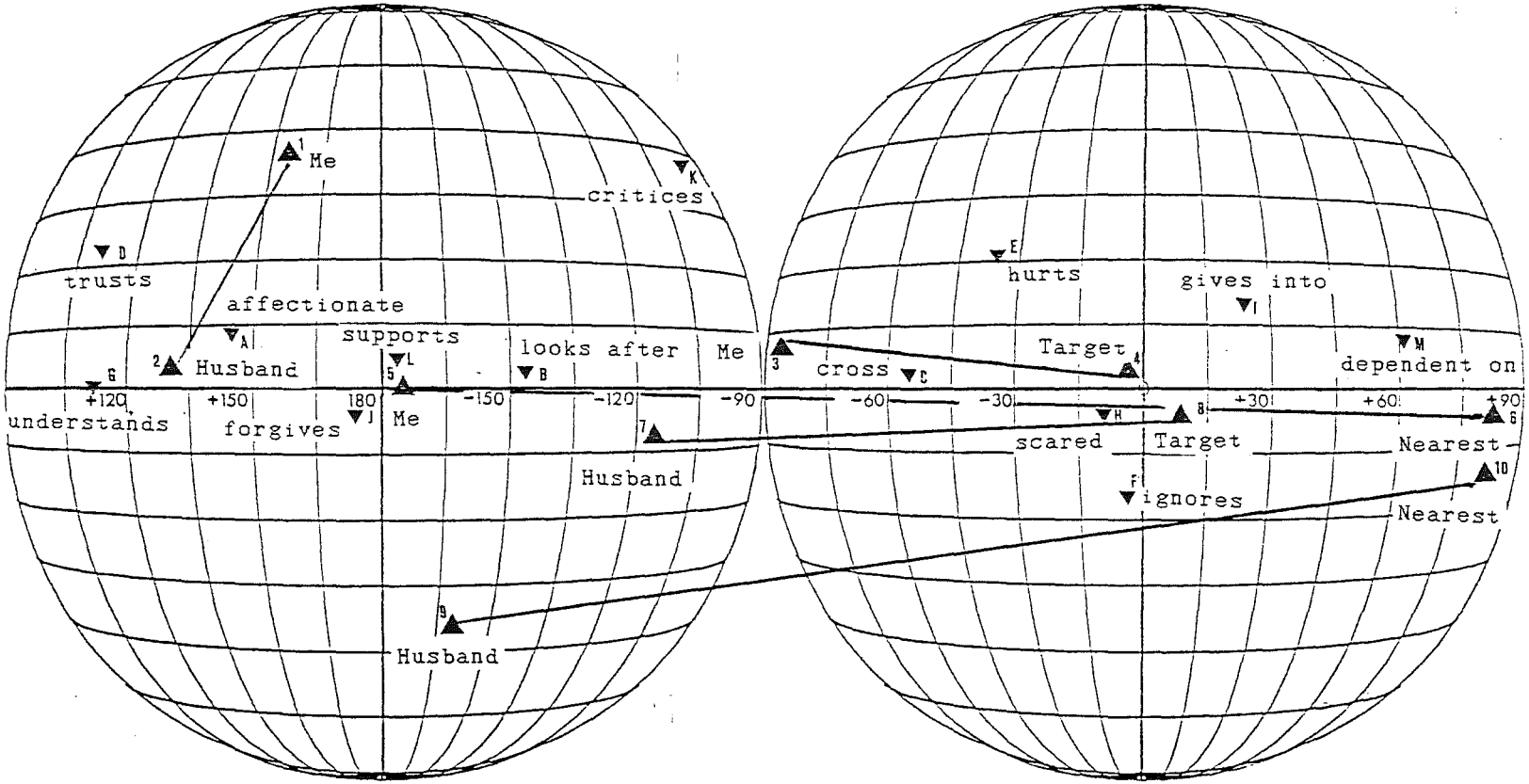

Fig. 3.3 Composite diagram for components 1, 2, & 3 for mothers of aggressive children. Consensus Grid

▼ indicates the position of the constructs

▲ indicates the position of the elements

more clearly describe their own relationship with these children compared to their husbands' relationship with them. Mothers see themselves as very FORGIVING, LOOKING AFTER and SUPPORTIVE while not being IGNORING OF or SCARED OF the children. Fathers are described as moderately SUPPORTIVE and LOOKING AFTER, and moderately low on HURTING, DEPENDING ON and GIVING INTO their nearest-age children.

Mothers describe positive reciprocal relationships with both their partners and their nearest-age children; also from nearest-age children to fathers. Relationships involving target children are described in conflictual, coercive terms both to and from their parents. This is confirmed in the table of inter-element relations (Appendix 3.9). Most dissimilar are combinations of relationships between firstly, the target children and their parents, and secondly, between nearest-age children and their parents. Most similar are the coercively based behaviours from target children to their parents.

4. Mothers of highly-socialized children.

The consensus grid obtained from SERIES (Appendix 3.10) analysis was made available for INGRID analysis.

A. Preliminary results.

Construct correlations in Table 3.10 indicate high positive correlations between a number of obviously related constructs such as LOOKS AFTER, UNDERSTANDS, SUPPORTS,

Table 3.10. Inter-correlations and angular distances between constructs of mothers with highly-socialized children. Consensus Grid.

Construct 1											
2	0.705	45.17	3	-0.266	105.44	4	0.777	39.05	5	0.192	78.92
6	-0.574	125.03	7	0.686	46.69	8	-0.508	120.55	9	-0.358	111.00
10	0.710	44.78	11	0.533	57.79	12	0.733	42.86	13	-0.086	94.95
Construct 2											
3	-0.327	109.06	4	0.740	42.24	5	0.576	54.86	6	-0.599	126.82
7	0.909	24.60	8	-0.888	152.61	9	-0.810	144.07	10	0.686	46.71
11	0.728	43.25	12	0.858	30.88	13	-0.617	128.09			
Construct 3											
4	-0.402	113.67	5	-0.407	114.03	6	-0.206	101.89	7	-0.122	97.04
8	0.056	86.78	9	0.510	59.33	10	-0.310	108.07	11	-0.073	94.20
12	-0.064	93.68	13	0.068	86.08						
Construct 4											
5	0.707	45.03	6	-0.252	104.61	7	0.687	46.63	8	-0.640	129.78
9	-0.406	113.94	10	0.325	71.05	11	0.613	52.16	12	0.487	60.88
13	0.021	88.77									
Construct 5											
6	0.058	86.66	7	0.468	62.13	8	-0.520	121.32	9	-0.430	115.49
10	-0.044	92.52	11	0.530	57.97	12	0.205	78.18	13	-0.072	94.12
Construct 6											
7	-0.607	127.36	8	0.569	55.34	9	0.351	69.47	10	-0.516	121.07
11	-0.563	124.27	12	-0.663	131.53	13	0.577	54.73			
Construct 7											
8	-0.839	147.04	9	-0.691	133.68	10	0.609	52.49	11	0.680	47.16
12	0.802	36.66	13	-0.497	119.82						
Construct 8											
9	0.656	48.98	10	-0.420	114.85	11	-0.767	140.09	12	-0.704	134 75
13	0.638	50.35									
Construct 9											
10	-0.610	127.58	11	-0.277	106.09	12	-0.650	130.54	13	0.785	38.30
Construct 10											
11	0.366	68.55	12	0.879	28.43	13	-0.500	119.98			
Construct 11											
12	0.582	54.44	13	-0.301	107.53						
Construct 12											
13	-0.591	126.19									

AFFECTIONATE, TRUSTS and FORGIVES. However, CRITICISM correlates 0.728 with LOOKS AFTER, and TRUSTS correlates with HURTS 0.707 while DEPENDENT ON and GIVES INTO correlate 0.785.

GIVING IN carries moderate association with low AFFECTION, HURTING, SCARED OF and definitly more strongly with not LOOKING AFTER. Being CROSS is not particularly associated with any other construct except a moderate 0.51 with GIVING INTO. These findings suggest some ambivalence in mothers of highly-socialized children towards strife.

HURT and CRITICISM are seen as having a place within caring, co-operative relationships, but GIVING IN suggests to them that family members are not LOOKING AFTER each other and are experiencing some fear of each other. Anger plays little role and may occur as one GIVES IN TO others. Consequently, compromising may be difficult.

When determining the element (relationships) distances as indicated in Table 3.11 distinct groupings by generation occur. Children are seen as behaving similarly to their parents and parents behaving in their own similar manner to the children. These patterns suggest that parents and children behave differently between the generations without any pattern of child isolation occuring.

B. Principal components results.

The latent roots of the first three components accounted for 87% of the observed variation. Component one accounts for 57% of the variation.

Table 3.11. Linear distances between the relationships [elements] for mothers of highly-socialized children. Consensus Grid.

ELEMENTS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Me to sp.	0.629	0.787	1.199	0.778	1.308	1.077	1.189	1.046	1.388
2 Sp. to me		0.812	1.131	0.853	1.278	0.943	1.224	0.965	1.395
3 Me to target			0.962	0.528	1.297	0.537	1.083	0.673	1.381
4 Target to me				1.034	0.593	0.899	0.379	1.012	0.819
5 Me to nearest					1.251	0.549	1.038	0.625	1.295
6 Nearest to me						1.190	0.589	1.201	0.455
7 Sp. to target							1.012	0.435	1.258
8 Target to sp.								1.102	0.704
9 Sp. to nearest									1.170
10 Nearest to sp.									

Component One

Positive pole	Negative pole
Elements	
3 Me to target(A)	2 Target(A) to me
5 Me to nearest-age(B)	8 Target(A) to spouse
1 Me to spouse	6 Nearest-age(B) to me
2 Spouse to me	10 Nearest-age(B) to
Constructs	
7 Understands	13 dependent on
2 Looks after	
11 Criticises	
12 Supports	

This component appears to identify conditions within which mothers fulfil nurturing roles and in turn feel nurtured within their families. Within previously mentioned coercive associations with dependency, the presence of that construct seems negatively associated with nurturing within families of those mothers (Appendix 3.12).

Component two accounted for 20.19% of variance.

Component Two

Positive Pole	Negative Pole
Elements	
7 Spouse to target(A)	2 Spouse to me
9 Spouse to nearest-age(A)	1 Me to spouse
Constructs	
(No constructs)	13 Dependent on
	4. Trusts
	5. Hurts

Table 3.12. Relations between constructs and elements expressed as cosines for mothers of highly-socialized children. Consensus Grid.

Construct 1 with element											
1	0.551	2	0.662	3	0.601	4	-0.122	5	0.284	6	-0.647
7	0.190	8	-0.225	9	-0.113	10	-0.848				
Construct 2 with element											
1	0.644	2	0.745	3	0.754	4	-0.737	5	0.662	6	-0.896
7	0.476	8	-0.844	9	0.439	10	-0.879				
Construct 3 with element											
1	-0.071	2	-0.719	3	0.176	4	0.263	5	-0.024	6	0.184
7	-0.063	8	0.305	9	-0.100	10	0.130				
Construct 4 with element											
1	0.860	2	0.884	3	0.376	4	-0.484	5	0.162	6	-0.519
7	-0.130	8	-0.495	9	-0.110	10	-0.592				
Construct 5 with element											
1	0.782	2	0.741	3	0.068	4	-0.750	5	0.229	6	-0.274
7	-0.260	8	-0.687	9	0.117	10	-0.207				
Construct 6 with element											
1	-0.307	2	-0.045	3	-0.740	4	0.267	5	-0.672	6	0.828
7	-0.466	8	0.282	9	-0.418	10	0.742				
Construct 7 with element											
1	0.637	2	0.627	3	0.898	4	-0.607	5	0.558	6	-0.851
7	0.356	8	-0.771	9	0.300	10	-0.820				
Construct 8 with element											
1	-0.675	2	-0.491	3	-0.735	4	0.830	5	-0.661	6	0.855
7	-0.468	8	0.754	9	-0.439	10	0.712				
Construct 9 with element											
1	-0.180	2	-0.583	3	-0.573	4	0.642	5	-0.455	6	0.731
7	-0.672	8	0.886	9	-0.753	10	0.609				
Construct 10 with element											
1	0.074	2	0.453	3	0.675	4	-0.164	5	0.539	6	-0.662
7	0.693	8	-0.458	9	0.249	10	-0.877				
Construct 11 with element											
1	0.804	2	0.478	3	0.531	4	-0.714	5	0.800	6	-0.704
7	0.084	8	-0.465	9	0.018	10	-0.649				
Construct 12 with element											
1	0.392	2	0.469	3	0.853	4	-0.409	5	0.662	6	-0.791
7	0.643	8	-0.667	9	0.345	10	-0.971				
Construct 13 with element											
1	0.044	2	-0.040	3	-0.600	4	0.606	5	-0.700	6	0.746
7	-0.870	8	0.673	9	-0.010	10	0.524				

The component suggests constructs related to disapproval factors. As long as fathers are at least neutral towards the children and avoiding negative constructs then approval is felt by mothers. Disapproval appears when spouses HURT each other, possibly in situations when some DEPENDENCY and TRUST have been involved.

The smaller third component relates to specific parent-child relationships. The positive pole is defined by conciliatory behaviour from target children to parents (DEPENDENCY, AFFECTION, SUPPORT, FORGIVING) and the negative pole is associated with when fathers and nearest-age children HURT each other.

C. Diagrammatic representation.

The above results are illustrated in Figure 3.4. The spousal relationships are seen to be close in space with nearby constructs of TRUSTS, CRITICISES, UNDERSTANDS, LOOKS AFTER and not SCARED OF each other. The exact distances between elements and constructs can be guaged from Table 3.12 where the relationships are expressed as cosines. Partners can be seen as similarly very TRUSTING and also HURTING, with women GIVING IN to their spouses more and men expressing little CROSSNESS to their wives. Mothers describe themselves as closer to the target rather than the nearest-age children. However, the tendency was for mothers to behave similarly to both i.e. with SUPPORT, LOOKING AFTER, and no FEAR OF or IGNORING either child. Nearest-age

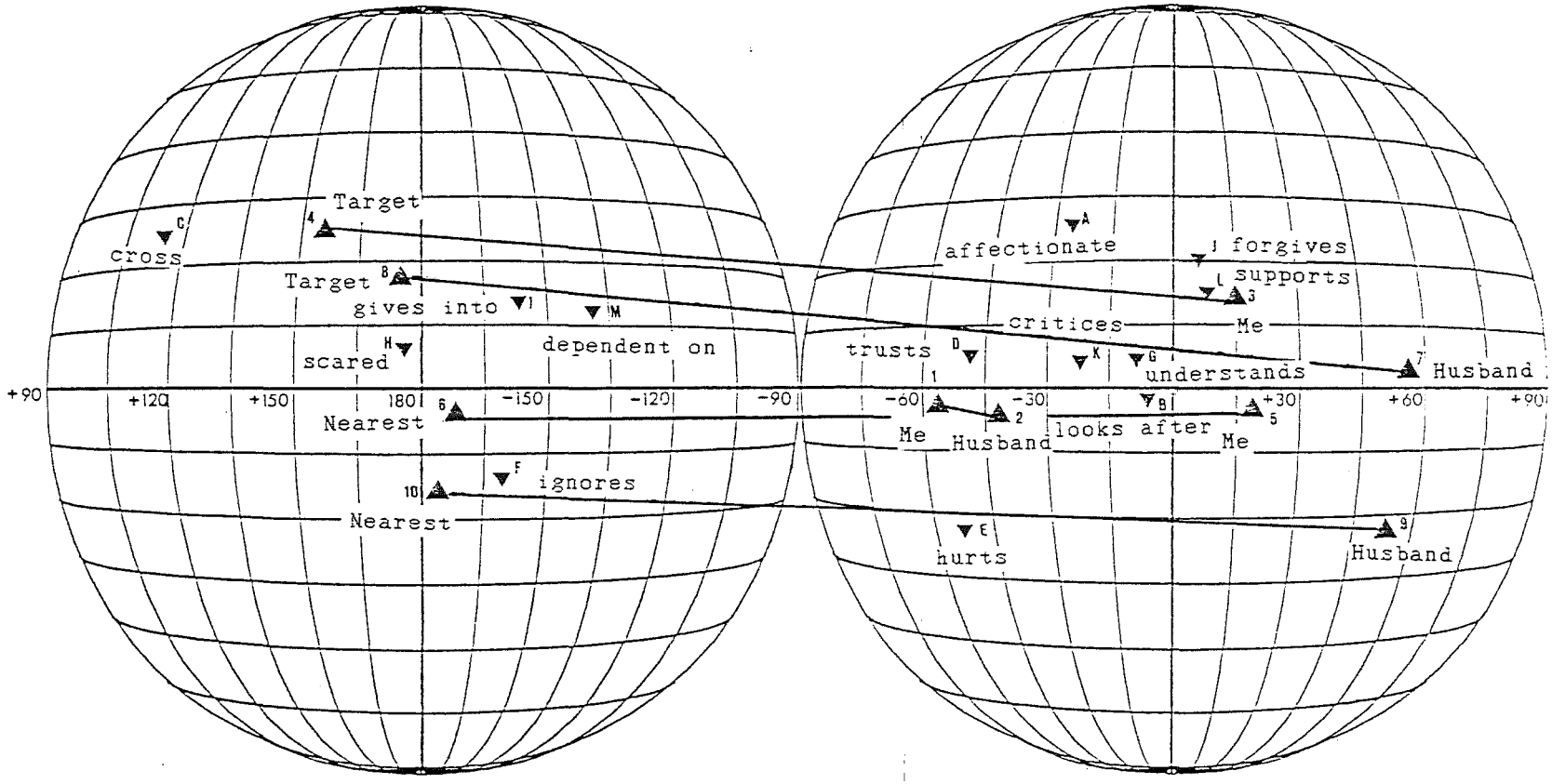

Fig. 3.4 Composite diagram for components 1, 2, & 3. for mothers of highly socialised children. consensus grid.

▼ indicates the position of the constru

▲ indicates the position of the element

children received more CRITICISM from their mothers.

Both children were seen as SCARED, not CRITICAL and not LOOKING AFTER their mothers. Nearest-age children were also seen as being more HURTING and IGNORING than their target siblings.

Fathers were described as DEPENDING little on the children with a tendency to be a little more FORGIVING and SUPPORTIVE of target children. Otherwise, few constructs were attached to his relationships with the children. Mothers had clearer ideas of how children responded to their fathers. They were seen as low in LOOKING AFTER, UNDERSTANDING and SUPPORT while also GIVING IN to their fathers' wishes. The nearest-age children were described as less AFFECTIONATE, more IGNORING, less FORGIVING and less SUPPORTIVE while target children were seen as less HURTING. However, the distances between elements (Appendix 3.12) indicates that while target children are closer to their parents, nearest-age children appear not to be at risk from any isolation and lack of support.

Summary and discussion

1. Fathers of aggressive children.

Being cross is negatively associated with affection and trust, suggesting difficulty in seeing anger as a productive process. Relationships between parents and target children were described as coercive while most positive were those behaviours directed from nearest-age children to their parents, and secondly the parental relationship. Consequently the target child appears most distant from others in their families.

Principal components analysis indicated a large first component indicating the importance of conditions leading to approval. Approval is associated with co-operatively based constructs in conjunction with spousal and nearest-age childrens' behaviour towards their mothers. Disapproval relates to crossness from parents to both children but mainly the targets. The second major component is related to affiliation within the family and involves again the parents and nearest-age children using co-operatively based constructs. That sense of affiliation appears to be missing when target children indicate they are afraid of and choose to ignore their parents.

Fathers described both parents as coercive towards target children. Target children are seen to reciprocate with coercion. Those relationships contrast with the largely positive nearest-age children and mother relationships with each other. Fathers are vaguer on their

relationships with nearest-age children but clearly view target children as giving and receiving least emotional support.

2. Fathers of highly socialized children.

Criticism is able to have some co-operative associations suggesting it can be used without alienation by these men. Clear generational boundary differences occur within these families according to the men. Parents act similarly toward their children which contrasts with the way in which target and nearest-age children together in turn respond to their parents. The principal components analysis highlights this. Closeness occurs when spouses support each other and mothers support their target children. Closeness is lacking when the children fear their parents. The second principal component indicated family harmony when spouses depended on each other and disharmony when they needed to be cross to the children.

While children were described as behaving similarly to their parents mothers were seen as closer to their target offspring. Fathers placed themselves in a more authoritarian position with children more afraid of them and lower in affection. Fathers in turn described themselves vaguely; they forgive target children and get a bit crosser with nearest-age children. Mother-child relationships were more clearly described than their own father-child relationships.

3. Mothers of aggressive children.

With positive association between the constructs gives in and scared, and the negative association of scared with forgiveness and supports, the construct patterns suggest difficulty in non-defensive compromising. Coercive problem-solving strategies are more likely to be associated with the above construct patterns suggesting negotiations involve win-lose situations and face saving. Most coercive relationships were those from the target children to their parents. Most co-operative was how husbands reacted to their wives. Nearest-age childen were described as reasonably co-operative towards both parents. As a result of these findings the target children can be seen to have markedly different relationships from other family members and to be most distant from them.

Principal components analysis indicated a large first component related to family affiliation. The target children are separated from other relationships which involve support and looking after. The second component indicates how the target children threaten their mothers' sense of acceptance in the family and lead to crossness instead of the co-operation and support in other relationships.

Women have a clear idea of their family relationships. However, apart from how their partners respond to them they are vaguer on the relationships the men have within the family.

4. Mothers of highly socialized children.

These mothers can associate some criticism and hurt with co-operative relationships. However, compromising may be difficult because of the high associations between giving in, scared of and not looking after each other. Parents are seen as behaving co-operatively towards their children but again the observation is made that some vagueness exists as to fathers' relationships with children.

Children are seen to react consistently to both of their parents and clear cut generational differences occur in child-adult relationships.

Principal components analysis indicate a large first component related to nurturance. This occurs when mothers-to-children and partners-to-each-other can understand, and support and look after while allowing criticism to occur. Dependency is associated with a lack of nurturance. Approval is related to the second component. As long as fathers are at least neutral to their children, mothers can accept their parental performance.

5. General Discussion.

Major characteristics in the perception of parents have been highlighted. The results suggest that while parents of both groups of target children do not enjoy conflict, the parents of highly-socialized children are more able to accept criticism and crossness in their relationships without alienation from affection and

support. However, those mothers have been noted to view the construct GIVING IN more coercively and this may influence their use of compromise. Mothers of aggressive children are likely to find the acceptance of conflict in problem - solving more difficult as they experience difficulty in associating LOOKING AFTER and SUPPORT with coercive constructs.

Parental coalitions appear important to all parent groups. Closer examination of these relationships has been left to a later chapter.

Unsurprisingly, the target children in the two groups are viewed differently. Parents of aggressive children see themselves coping with difficult coercive parent-child relationships. Parents of highly-socialized children also report management problems but appear not to have left any of their target (nor nearest-age) children at risk to the effects of emotional isolation from other family members. Aggressive target children are out on a limb in their families. Perceptions of their parents suggest they are more likely to be negatively evaluated and responded to than those of other family members, further reinforcing their isolation.

So far, the INGRID programme has allowed the characteristics within the consensus grids of each parent group to be highlighted. Major differences in perception between the groups have not yet been reported. Detailed comparisons will be made in Chapter Four, where the use of the DELTA program permits major differences to be clearly revealed.

CHAPTER FOUR

DIFFERENCES IN PARENTS PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR FAMILIES

Introduction.

Numerous studies have indicated that mother-child and father-child interactions are different (Parke and O'Leary, 1975; Clarke-Stewart, 1978, 1980). It has been assumed from this that their relationships are different (Lewis, Feiring and Weinraub, 1981). This may indeed be the case but it is still necessary to consider the role of interaction in relationships. Hinde (1976) attempted to define the meaning of a relationship and has included interaction as only one of several elements making up such a definition. The possibility exists, therefore, that relationships and interactions need not have a high correspondence.

Interactions are specifically behaviours that are observable and measurable. Relationships, on the other hand, are inferred from interactions but are difficult to specify and have proven difficult to measure. Knowledge of the relationships may help in predicting a particular interaction. However, knowing the relationship does not yield a one-to-one correspondence to a single interaction or set of interactions. Conversely observing the interaction between two individuals does not necessarily specify their relationship.

Clinic-referred children have been shown to differ from non-clinic children in that the former group display a higher rate of general deviant behaviours and non-compliance than the latter group (Delfini, 1976; Griest, 1980; Lobitz and Johnson, 1975). However, several investigators have found that despite significant differences in child behaviour between the two groups, many clinic-referred children display levels of deviant and non-compliant behaviour similar to those displayed by non-clinic children (Delfini, 1976; Lobitz and Johnson, 1975). Lobitz and Johnson proposed that factors in children's relationships besides child behaviours lead to clinic-referrals for treatment of deviant behaviour. Rickard et al (1981) suggested that one of the parents' characteristics which could be affecting the parent-child relationships might be their perception of their children's maladjustments. This, therefore, might be one of those other factors responsible for referral.

Only comparatively recently has attention been paid to empirically exploring the relationship between person perception and social processes (Snyder and Swann, 1978); Snyder, Tarke and Berscheid , 1977; Messé, Stollack, Larson and Michaels, 1979). According to Robinson and Eyberg (1981) characteristics of parents as well as children contribute to any diagnosis of conduct disorder in children. Person perception involves factors in the perceiver, the persons being observed and the construct within which the observations occur that are related to how

and why the perceiver selects, makes inferences from and integrates the material that others display. Stollack et al (1982) point to an interpersonal perception style - the extent to which a person is consistently sensitive to and likely to infer negative or positive qualities in others - as a variable central in mediating the overt social behaviour we experience and the relationships in which we perceive ourselves to be involved. Messé et al., (1979) reported that negatively biased parents tended to behave in a more authoritarian manner towards their seven year old children. Stollack et al (1982) also reported fathers of problem children more negatively biased than fathers of adequate or highly adjusted children. The exact nature of the linkage between interpersonal perception style and social experience has yet to be specified.

Home observations by Rickard et al (1981) contrasted a group of non-deviant clinic group of children with a non-clinic group, and found no differences in behaviour but did find that significantly more perceptions of maladjustment in their children were made by the parents of the clinic group. Ferguson and Allen (1978) concluded that parents of children exhibiting deviant social behaviour generally come from families demonstrating discrepant parental attitudes. Conversely parents of well-adjusted children, according to Ferguson, Partyka and Lester (1974), show closer agreement in parental perception than those of clinic-referred children. Confirming that finding, Ferguson and Allen (1978) stated their belief that when parents see

their children as possessing the characteristics of well adjusted children they also tend to agree closely in their perceptions of all aspects of their children's behaviour.

However, Lindholm and Touliates (1981a) report that correlations between parents' ratings of 1008 randomly chosen kindergarten to eighth grade children were moderate at best, with fathers peceiving few behaviour problems in their children. Generally boys were perceived by both parents as having more behaviour disorders than girls. In a further study (Lindholm and Touliates, 1981b) parents of conflictual children perceived their children as more maladjusted than did teachers of the children. Conversely it has been suggested by Bogaard (1977) that parents of aggressive children may have perceptions which involve lower expectations of what constitutes normal behaviour in children.

The study of parenting practices has relied heavily on mothers as the sole source of data. (Larson, 1974). Lamb (1976, 1981) reported a suddenly increased interest in father-child relationships especially within a framework of social learning theory. However, in the field of perception of family dynamics, especially beyond mother perceptions, research is in its infancy. This is even truer of other than parent-infant studies (McKenry et al, 1981). There is the possibility that within families, several "realities" may exist through each family member perceiving their

situation from differing standpoints. In a recent study of adolescents at home (McMillan and Hiltonsmith, 1982) a tenuous link was suggested between their actual behaviour and their perceptions of relationships with other family members. Greater periods of time spent with parents was more clearly associated with a greater sense of well-being. However, establishing the relationship between perceptions of behaviour and measurement of behaviour is fraught with difficulty and numerous studies have been unable to produce a reliable relationship. Yet the desirability of measuring the perceptions of family members remains great because of their, as yet, indeterminate contribution to family relationships, and the desirability of acknowledging cognitive components in relationship formation.

Method

1. Subjects and materials.

The four consensus grids formed in Chapter Three from the parents' INGRIDS were compared by DELTA, a principal components programme designed to highlight differences between grids. This indicated directions of differences in construct application across element relationships in the following comparisons:-

A. Fathers of aggressive with fathers of highly-socialized children.

B. Mothers of aggressive with mothers of highly-socialized children.

C. Parents of aggressive children contrasted with each other.

D. Parents of highly-socialized children contrasted with each other.

2. Analysis

DELTA analyses differences between two grids referring to the same elements and constructs. The same thirteen constructs and ten elements used in the consensus grids were entered into the DELTA programme. However, with between-sex comparisons, elements needed to be realigned so that congruity between partner perceptions of family relationships became possible. For example, a father's element of "me to my spouse" could be compared with a mother's element of "my spouse to me." Similarly one

parent's "me to target child(A)" could be compared with a partner's "my spouse to target child(A)" and so on. (Appendix 4.1)

A grid of differential changes is obtained by subtracting one grid from the other and then submitting it to principal components analysis. The results show the extent and direction of changes which have occurred. The analysis used is an abbreviated form of INGRID.

In the table of correlations and angular distances between constructs, the correlations are between changes in the application of any two constructs to the elements. High correlations indicate allied changes in the application of constructs. Small correlations can occur with little change in the application of one or another or both constructs involved, or when constructs have changed independently.

Construct loadings of the major component show how the major shift from Grid A to Grid B is related to the constructs. The element loadings show how the shift is related to the elements. Principal components analysis serve to indicate the extent and direction of the differences that have occurred in ways that help simplify interpretation.

Results

DELTA analysis, a principal components programme for highlighting differences between two individual, or in this case consensus grids, is used to compare the groups of parents. The order of comparisons is firstly, fathers' perceptions, secondly, mothers' perceptions are compared against each other, followed by the perceptions of mothers and fathers of aggressive children, and fourthly, the perceptions of mothers and fathers of highly-socialized children.

DELTA allows comparisons of group means by using correlated t-test analysis, construct applications through intercorrelation and angular distances, element salience and principal components. It should be recognised, as previously described, that in the case of DELTA analysis the principal components analysis is highlighting the principal dimensions along which differences occur between the two sets of grids.

1. Fathers' perceptions using DELTA.

The construct means of consensus grids for fathers were submitted to DELTA analysis (Table 4.1). When submitted to correlated T-Test analysis eleven of the thirteen constructs showed differences in group means, significant $p < 0.001$. Only the means for CROSSNESS and GIVES IN were not found to differ significantly.

The results revealed higher mean family usage of the

Table 4.1. Group construct means, correlations and significance of differences in means for fathers. DELTA.

Construct	Mean(B)	Mean(A)	Correlation	S.E	T-Test	
1 Affectionate	4.555	4.190	0.1250	0.0838	4.355	xxx
2 Looks after	4.370	4.119	0.8545	0.0389	6.451	xxx
3 Cross with	3.840	3.819	-0.0128	0.1160	0.182	
4 Trusts	4.640	3.971	0.5346	0.0601	11.139	xxx
5 Hurts	2.490	2.797	0.3221	0.0629	4.882	xxx
6 Ignores	2.020	2.370	0.5195	0.0656	5.341	xxx
7 Understands	4.085	3.590	0.5980	0.0652	7.588	xxx
8 Scared of	1.600	1.990	0.3614	0.0706	5.527	xxx
9 Gives into	3.400	3.367	-0.0177	0.0796	0.413	
10 Forgives	4.355	4.019	-0.2572	0.0635	5,291	xxx
11 Criticises	3.140	3.810	-0.0404	0.0977	6.859	xxx
12 Supports	4.285	4.000	0.6091	0.0619	4.599	xxx
13 Is dependent on	4.005	3.700	0.9463	0.0609	5.012	xxx

General degree of correlation 0.4443

(A) Fathers of aggressive children
(B) Fathers of highly-socialized children

xxx p < .001

Table 4.2. Intercorrelations of at least 0.60 and angular distances between constructs of fathers. DELTA.

	r	Angular distance
Negative correlations		
Affectionate / cross	-0.939	159.83
Cross / understands	-0.741	137.79
Trusts / criticises	-0.691	133.67
Cross / trusts	-0.672	132.20
Looks after / dependent	-0.672	128.85
Positive correlations		
Trusts / supports	0.752	41.27
Trusts / understands	0.674	46.64
Affextionate / understands	0.649	49.53
Understands / forgives	0.644	49.94
Affectionate / trusts	0.621	51.61
Cross / criticises	0.604	52.86

six co-operatively associated constructs for fathers of highly-socialized children and higher mean family usage in four of the five coercively-associated constructs for fathers of aggressive children.

Table 4.2 shows similar applications of TRUST and SUPPORT and markedly dissimilar applications of AFFECTION and CROSSNESS and of CROSSNESS and UNDERSTANDING across the elements within the two grids. This reflects findings noted in the analysis of INGRID, namely, that fathers of highly-socialized children were more able to associate CROSSNESS with co-operative constructs.

The four major relationship element changes accounting for 57.5% of the variance within the grid of differential changes within elements were all related to mothers. Three of these elements were how the target and nearest-age children and her husband behaved towards the mother/wife. Fathers of highly-socialized children perceived their wives to receive less coercively associated constructs from their children and their wives to be more co-operative with the target children.

Principal components analysis of the grid of differential changes showed the first three components to account for 78.5% of the variance.

Component One (46.9% of variance)

Positive Pole	Negative Pole
Elements	
8 Target(A) to spouse	1 Me to my spouse
7 Spouse to target(A)	6 Nearest-age(B) to me

3 Me to target(A)	5 Me to nearest-age(B)
4 Target(A) to me	10 Nearest-age(B) to spouse
	9 Spouse to nearest-age(B)

Constructs

3 Cross	1 Affectionate
11 Critical	7 Understands

This component suggests that the fathers of aggressive children describe both parental relationships with the target children as slightly crosser and significantly more critical. More co-opratively based relationships appear to be acheived between other family members.

However, component two indicates that even within these other relationships a greater degree of hurt feelings occurs than within the families of highly-socialized children.

Component Two (21% of variance)

Positive Pole	Negative Pole
Elements	
1 Me to spouse	10 Nearest-age(B) to spouse
7.Spouse to target(A)	8 Target(A) to spouse
3 Me to target(A)	4 Target(A) to me
9 Spouse to nearest-age(B)	
2 Spouse to me	
Constructs	
5 Hurts	11 Critical
8 Scared	10 Forgives
2 Looks after	9 Gives in
12 Supports	13 Dependent on

More relationship satisfactions are felt to exist in non-target child relationships reinforcing the INGRID observations of aggressive target children being emotionally distant from their families.

The third component accounting for 10.6% of variance had a mixture of parent-child relationships contrasted at the poles with hurt and support. This further indicated that within families of aggressive children divisions occur more between individual relationships than between generations.

2. Mothers' perceptions using DELTA

The construct means of each consensus grid were submitted to DELTA (Table 4.3.) and the correlated t-test analysis indicated differences between twelve of the thirteen construct means significant at $p < 0.01$.

Results indicated that for mothers of highly - socialized children higher mean family usage of co-operatively associated constructs are felt to occur. For mothers of aggressive children, higher mean family usage of coercively associated constructs are reported.

The application of constructs across elements is reported in Table 4.4. Mothers in both groups used a number of constructs similarly: AFFECTIONATE, SUPPORTIVE and FORGIVES; TRUSTS and UNDERSTANDS. The mothers differ in their application of affection with CROSS, HURTS and IGNORES; CROSS with SUPPORTS, and HURTS with FORGIVES and SUPPORTS. These differing applications suggest that while

SEE ERRATA

Table 4.3. Group construct means, correlations and significance of differences in means for mothers. DELTA.

Construct	Mean(B)	Mean(A)	Correlation	S.E	T-Test
1 Affectionate	4.520	4.244	-0.0544	0.0880	3.137 xx
2 Looks after	4.280	4.039	0.7893	0.0773	3.116 xx
3 Cross with	3.715	3.996	0.7562	0.747	3.764 xxx
4 Trusts	4.355	4.210	0.6902	0.537	2.701 xx
5 Hurts	2.644	3.090	-0.4687	0.1582	2.819 xx
6 Ignores	2.150	2.506	-0.1011	0.1260	2.825 xx
7 Understands	4.025	3.481	-0.1426	0.1151	4.726 xxx
8 Scared of	1.430	1.844	0.6470	0.0765	5.413 xxx
9 Gives into	3.125	3.107	0.5088	0.0727	1.486
10 Forgives	4.316	3.825	0.1419	0.0751	6.537 xxx
11 Criticises	3.290	3.624	0.4974	0.0789	4.231 xxx
12 Supports	4.398	4.006	0.4733	0.0806	4.852 xxx
13 Is dependent on	3.745	3.560	0.9540	0.0361	5.126 xxx

General degree of correlation 0.3735

(A) Mothers of aggressive children
(B) Mothers of highly-socialized children

xx $p < .01$
xxx $p < .001$

Table 4.4. Inter-correlations and angular distances between constructs of mothers. DELTA.

Construct 1												
2	0.495	60.33	3	-0.748	138.44	4	0.615	52.04	5	-0.873	150.77
6	-0.714	135.56	7	0.545	56.98	8	-0.670	132.07	9	-0.352	110.64
10	0.933	21.04	11	-0.544	122.95	12	0.796	37.25	13	0.529	5.806
Construct 2												
3	0.085	85.11	4	-0.255	104.78	5	-0.439	116.03	6	-0.482	118.83
7	-0.270	105.67	8	-0.402	113.69	9	-0.355	110.79	10	0.525	58.35
11	-0.242	104.03	12	0.294	72.89	13	-0.110	96.32			
Construct 3												
4	-0.641	129.86	5	0.800	36.83	6	0.432	64.40	7	-0.669	132.01
8	0.595	53.48	9	0.294	79.93	10	-0.619	128.24	11	0.588	53.95
12	-0.810	144.12	13	-0.634	129.34						
Construct 4												
5	-0.423	115.05	6	-0.285	106.56	7	0.897	26.27	8	-0.290	106.85
9	0.081	85.36	10	0.571	55.16	11	-0.182	100.51	12	0.422	65.07
13	0.744	41.93									
Construct 5												
6	0.654	49.17	7	-0.400	113.60	8	0.866	30.05	9	0.414	65.56
10	-0.796	142.70	11	0.520	58.65	12	-0.907	155.08	13	-0.569	124.70
Construct 6												
7	-0.150	98.63	8	0.534	57.72	9	0.426	64.77	10	-0.580	125.46
11	0.323	71.14	12	-0.651	130.61	13	-0.129	97.44			
Construct 7												
8	-0.290	106.86	9	-0.030	91.74	10	0.422	65.02	11	-0.354	110.72
12	0.389	67.09	13	0.861	30.56						
Construct 8												
9	0.228	76.84	10	-0.579	125.37	11	0.421	65.12	12	-0.645	130.14
13	-0.545	123.00									
Construct 9												
10	-0.381	112.38	11	0.137	82.15	12	-0.608	127.47	13	-0.218	102.57
Construct 10												
11	-0.373	111.88	12	0.764	40.21	13	0.466	62.44			
Construct 11												
12	-0.508	120.53	13	-0.163	99.40						
Construct 12												
13	0.495	60.34									

mothers of highly-socialized children don't necessarily accept crossness, hurting and criticism easily these are able to co-exist with co-operative relationships. In some cases, such as CROSS and SUPPORTS, and HURTS and FORGIVES which correlate 0.64 and 0.44 respectively, mothers of highly-socialized children apply these independently of each other. For these same constructs mothers of aggressive children evaluated them as more negatively correlated at -0.519 and -0.674 respectively, mitigating the co-existance of those constructs in problem solving situations. SEE ERRATA

Two major relationship changes accounted for 45.4% of variance within the grid of differential changes within elements. They were how the target children and mothers related to each other. Quite obviously the relationships between mothers and target children are different across the two groups of families. However, less predictable is that two of the elements which showed the smallest changes within the grid were how fathers were described to relate to target and nearest-age children. In both groups, women had vague perceptions of their husbands' behaviour with the children. In families with aggressive children, fathers were moderately associated with more coercive strategies. In families with highly-socialized children there was a lack of any moderate or stronger association in fathers' behaviour to the children in the view of the wives.

The principal components analysis of the grid of differential changes showed the first three components to account for 83.9% of total variation.

Component One (61% of variation)

Positive pole	Negative Pole
Elements	
10 Nearest-age(B) to spouse	4 Target(A) to me
6 Nearest-age(B) to me	3 Me to target(A)
5 Me to nearest-age(B)	8 Target(A) to spouse
2 Spouse to me	7 Spouse to target(A)
1 Me to nearest-age(B)	
Constructs	
1 Affectionate	5 Hurts
12 Supports	6 Ignores
10 Forgives	3 Cross with
7 Understands	8 Scared of

The two poles largely contrast the differing relationships which the two groups of mothers perceived the target and nearest-age children to be experiencing. Mothers of aggressive target children saw those children and themselves caught in reciprocally hurting relationships. These mothers felt more AFFECTION and FORGIVENESS both to and from their nearest-age children. The much smaller second component illustrated how mothers of highly - socialized children felt more UNDERSTANDING from their target children. This contrasted with the negative pole which identified how mothers of aggressive children feel themselves to be LOOKING after those children to a lesser

degree.

Component Two (16.4% of variation)

Positive Pole	Negative Pole
Elements	
4 Target(A) to me	3 Me to target(A)
8 Target(A) to spouse	7 Spouse to target(A)
Constructs	
7 Understands	2 Looks after
9 Gives into	3 Gets cross
6 Ignores	
13 Dependent on	
4 Trusts	

3. Perceptions of parents with aggressive children.

DELTA.

The construct means of consensus grids for both mothers and fathers of aggressive children were submitted to DELTA analysis. Correlated t-Test analysis indicated nine of the thirteen constructs showing mean values differ significantly at $p < 0.05$. (Table 4.5.)

The construct intercorrelations in Table 4.6 suggest that arguing one's point and therefore not giving in to another point of view is associated with a loss of affection and a lack of forgiveness. To ignore another person is associated with hurt, and that in turn is strongly associated with a lack of support. In turn support is moderately associated with affection which in turn is strongly associated with forgiveness. It is likely for both

Table 4.5. Group construct means, correlations and significances of differences in means for parents of aggressive children. DELTA.

Construct	Mean(B)	Mean(A)	Correlation	S.E	T-Test	
1 Affectionate to	4.190	4.244	0.9497	0.0239	2.264	x
2 Looks after	4.119	4.039	0.8656	0.0670	1.195	
3 Cross with	3.819	4.039	0.8139	0.0614	2.885	xx
4 Trusts	3.971	4.210	0.9056	0.0309	7.722	xx
5 Hurts	2.797	3.090	0.0283	0.1213	2.414	x
6 Ignores	2.370	2.449	0.7516	0.0680	1.156	
7 Understands	3.590	3.482	0.4457	0.0792	1.362	
8 Scared of	1.990	1.844	0.8231	0.0561	2.605	xx
9 Gives into	3.367	3.007	0.2382	0.0736	4.892	xxx
10 Forgives	4.019	3.825	0.4100	0.0547	3.545	xx
11 Criticises	3.810	3.624	0.7640	0.0501	3.713	xxx
12 Supports	4.000	4.007	0.7977	0.0535	0.129	
13 Is dependent on	3.700	3.559	0.8772	0.0693	2.036	x

General degree of correlation 0.6944

(A) Fathers of aggressive children
(B) Mothers of aggressive children

x p < .05
xx p < .01
xxx p < .001

Table 4.6. Intercorrelations of at least 0.60 and angular distances between constructs of mothers and fathers of aggressive children. DELTA.

	r	Angular distance
Negative correlations		
Hurts / supports	-0.898	153.86
Ignores / supports	-0.861	149.39
Positive correlations		
Affectionate / forgives	0.925	22.38
Hurts / ignoress	0.878	78.55
Gives into / forgives	0.861	30.58
Affectionate / gives into	0.784	38.39
Affectionate / supports	0.620	51.69
Hurts / scared of	0.618	51.80
Looks after / forgives	0.609	52.50

parents that defensive responses to perceived self-esteem threats are likely in times of difference of opinion.

Two major relationship elements account for 42.6% of variance within the grid of differential changes within elements. They were the target and mother relationships with each other. Of these, how target children behaved to their mother was the element which showed greatest changes in construct application. Fathers described their wives' behaviour to the target children as cross, critical and lacking in affection, trust, dependency and giving in. Mothers described themselves in the same relationship as cross and critical and neither understanding, trusting nor dependent on their target offspring.

Target children were described by fathers as moderately ignoring and neither understanding nor looking after their mothers. Mothers described their target children reacting to them with hurt, ignore, fear, giving in to, very little support and forgiveness and little affection or looking after. Parental perceptions of target child relationships with parents were of unsupportive conflicts. The hurt which mothers feel in those situations and the identification with them by their husbands increases the probability of differences of opinion involving target children being responded to with coercively-associated constructs.

The principal components analysis of the grid of differential changes indicates the first three components accounted for 79.6% of total variation due to differences

between the two consensus grids.

Component One (43.6% of variation)

Positive Pole	Negative Pole
Elements	
8 Target(A) to mother	5 Father to nearest-age(B)
	3 Father to target(A)
	9 Mother to nearest-age(B)
Constructs	
5 Hurts	12 Supports
6 Ignores	10 Forgives
7 Understands	2 Looks after
	9 Gives into

The major shift between fathers and mothers grids related to the application of the constructs HURTS, IGNORES and UNDERSTANDS to the target childrens' behaviour to their mothers. When the mothers' consensus grid analysed by INGRID was referred to, a high loading of the construct, HURT, was found on components one and three. Whereas with fathers the element, HURT, is not represented in any of the three principal components. In fact the radial polar co-ordinates for hurt at 0.55 indicate that that construct does not project onto the subspace described within the component-space of the three major components for men. The construct, HURT, can be regarded as of central importance for mothers of aggressive children; as can to a lesser extent the construct, IGNORE. These mothers experience hurtful and ignoring behaviour from their target offspring.

At the negative pole parents described mothers as

looking after their nearest-age children more than fathers do. Mothers described themselves as more forgiving while fathers described their wives as more supportive of nearest-age children. The mother-nearest-age relationship is described as more co-operative than mother-target child relationships. However, it also appears that fathers of aggressive children greatly underestimate the degree to which mothers feel hurt and ignored, especially from the target children.

The second component accounts for 20.2% of variation and was related to differences between how partners described their wives' relationships with the children.

Component Two (20.2% of variation)

Positive Pole	Negative Pole
Elements	
7 Mother to target(A)	10 Nearest-age(B) to mother
9 Mother to nearest-age(B)	6 Nearest-age(B) to father
	3 Father to target(A)
	4 Target(A) to father
Constructs	
9 Gives in to	7 Understands
2 Looks after	3 Gets cross with
5 Hurts	13 Dependent on

Mothers of aggressive children associated LOOKING AFTER with SUPPORT while contrasting it to IGNORES, GIVES INTO and HURTS. Mothers appeared to view LOOKING AFTER as something they did to other family members and certainly didn't receive back from their target children. GIVING IN

was also associated by women with what they did to their husbands during conflict and what the target children did to their parents during conflict.

Fathers viewed spouses as LOOKING AFTER each other when being understanding and supportive. Fathers viewed both partners as GIVING IN to each other in association with TRUST and AFFECTION. GIVING IN was viewed less conflictually than for mothers.

Component three accounted for 15.8% of variation and reflected a view of mothers that nearest-age childen were more dependent on their parents and that target children were more scared of both parents. Fathers perceived themselves as being crosser with nearest-age children rather than target children.

4. Perceptions of parents with highly-socialized children. DELTA.

The construct means of consensus grids for both mothers and fathers of highly-socialized children were submitted to DELTA analysis. Correlated t-test analysis tested in Table 4.7 indicated that ten of the thirteen constructs showed differences in group means significant at $p < 0.05$.

High correlations existed in the use of several constructs with the lowest correlations between parents being on the constructs GIVES IN, CROSS and HURTS.

When reference is made back to the original Consensus Grids analysed by INGRID, mothers viewed giving in as a

part of a more conciliatory process than as viewed by fathers. They associated it strongly with LOOKS AFTER and moderately with UNDERSTANDS, SUPPORTS and FORGIVENESS while fathers associated it only moderately with SUPPORTS and FORGIVES. Men viewed themselves as giving in more to their wives while women viewed neither partner as likely to give in, with husbands even less likely to. Fathers viewed nearest-age children as unlikely to give in to their mothers while the mothers viewed those children as very likely to give in to them. Mothers also described themselves as crosser to their partners than were the men in return. Fathers described parents as crossest with their children, more so than their partners felt to be the case.

Table 4.8 shows the inter-correlations between constructs in the DELTA analysis. Most similarly used are the constructs FORGIVES and SUPPORTS correlating 0.91 and CROSS and DEPENDENT correlating 0.77.

Most dissimilar in application are the constructs TRUSTS and DEPENDENT.

Two elements, husbands to wives and targets to fathers accounted for 40% of variation within the grid of differential changes within elements. The differing perceptions which parents have of those two relationships is reflected in the first three principal components which account for 79.5% of the total observed variation due to differences between the consensus grids.

Table 4.7. Group construct means, correlations and significance of differences in means for parents of highly-socialized children. DELTA.

Construct	Mean(B)	Mean(A)	Correlation	S.E	T-Test	
1 Affectionate to	4.555	4.520	0.8269	0.0358	0.978	
2 Looks after	4.370	4.280	0.8691	0.0356	2.529	x
3 Cross with	3.840	3.715	-0.1101	0.0704	1.775	x
4 Trusts	4.640	4.355	0.5787	0.0517	5.516	xxx
5 Hurts	2.490	2.644	0.0810	0.0852	1.807	x
6 Ignores	2.020	2.150	0.4437	0.0473	2.751	xx
7 Understands	4.085	4.025	0.8360	0.0433	1.385	
8 Scared of	1.600	1.430	0.6332	0.0554	3.070	xx
9 Gives into	3.400	3.215	-0.6610	0.0827	2.238	x
10 Forgives	4.355	4.316	0.5345	0.0502	0.777	
11 Criticises	3.140	3.290	0.7336	0.0615	2.440	x
12 Supports	4.285	4.398	0.4503	0.0618	1.830	x
13 Is dependent on	4.005	3.745	0.8012	0.0653	3.980	xxx

General degree of correlation 0.5545

(A) Fathers of highly-socialized children.
(B) Mothers of highly-socialized children

x $p < .05$
xx $p < .01$
xxx $p < .001$

Table 4.8. Inter-correlations and angular distances between constructs of parents of highly-socialized children. DELTA.

Construct 1										
2	0.510	59.31	3	-0.160	99.20	4	-0.179	100.30	5	-0.161	99.25
6	0.135	82.26	7	-0.760	139.42	8	-0.586	125.87	9	0.010	89.41
10	-0.471	118.50	11	-0.328	109.17	12	-0.648	130.42	13	-0.231	103.33
Construct 2										
3	-0.510	120.65	4	0.474	61.68	5	0.259	75.01	6	-0.020	91.14
7	-0.407	114.02	8	-0.059	93.39	9	-0.676	132.52	10	-0.057	93.24
11	-0.610	127.55	12	0.004	89.80	13	-0.724	136.39			
Construct 3										
4	-0.477	118.50	5	-0.501	120.06	6	0.058	86.65	7	-0.109	96.27
8	-0.071	94.08	9	0.561	55.90	10	0.104	84.00	11	0.513	59.11
12	0.077	85.57	13	0.767	39.92						
Construct 4										
5	0.698	45.77	6	0.082	85.30	7	0.268	74.46	8	0.322	71.20
9	-0.734	137.23	10	-0.142	98.16	11	-0.289	106.78	12	0.025	88.59
13	-0.818	144.90									
Construct 5										
6	0.642	50.03	7	0.484	61.04	8	0.269	74.39	9	-0.541	122.76
10	0.053	89.64	11	-0.473	118.24	12	0.008	89.55	13	-0.583	125.67
Construct 6										
7	0.057	86.73	8	-0.240	103.88	9	0.122	82.98	10	0.031	88.20
11	-0.230	103.27	12	-0.175	100.06	13	-0.052	92.99			
Construct 7										
8	0.674	47.65	9	-0.282	106.39	10	0.197	78.63	11	-0.156	99.00
12	0.290	73.15	13	0.055	86.85						
Construct 8										
9	-0.393	113.15	10	0.528	58.11	11	0.033	88.13	12	0.624	51.38
13	0.086	85.07									
Construct 9										
10	0.089	84.88	11	0.661	48.59	12	-0.-53	93.05	13	0.744	41.95
Construct 10										
11	0.328	70.87	12	0.909	24.68	13	0.359	68.93			
Construct 11										
12	0.261	74.90	13	0.560	55.91						
Construct 12										
13	0.238	76.25									

Component One (45.9% of variation)

Positive Pole	Negative Pole
Elements	
1 Fathers to mothers	4 Target(A) to father
5 Father to target(A)	10 Nearest-age(B) to mother
2 Mother to father	8 Target(A) to mother
Constructs	
5 Hurts	9 Gives in
4 Trusts	13 Dependent
2 Looks after	3 Gets cross with
	10 Forgives

Women feel their partners to be more HURTING, TRUSTING and to LOOK AFTER them more while perceiving the children as more DEPENDENT, FORGIVING and GIVING IN to their parents.

Component Two (21.2% of variation)

Positive Pole	Negative Pole
Elements	
9 Mother to nearest-age(B)	6 Nearest-age(B) to father
7 Mother to target(A)	4 Target(A) to father
8 Target(A) tp mother	5 Father to nearest-age(B)
10 Nearest-age(B) to mother	3 Father to Target(A)
Constructs	
12 Supports	1 Affectionate
8 Scared of	
10 Forgives	
7 Understands	

On this component mothers describe themselves as more

SUPPORTIVE and FORGIVING towards their children. They also view themselves as more SCARED OF their children. Mothers also described a larger degree of AFFECTION felt by the children for their fathers than the men assessed the case to be.

The third component reflects a belief by mothers that their children are more HURTING and IGNORING of their parents. This component also suggests that men see more positively the amount of LOOKING AFTER and SUPPORTING of the children which they practice.

Summary and discussion.

The major findings in this chapter relate to the perceived functioning of mothers. In families with highly - socialized children men perceived less coercive attention passing to and from mothers and children. Both parents in such families were able to acknowledge the existence of crossness and to also associate it with the presence of co-operative constructs suggesting less likelihood of defensive responses hindering family conflict resolution.

1. Perceptions of mothers

Mothers in families with aggressive children reported greater feelings of hurt from family relationships than their spouses realized. These mothers associated giving in more conflictually than other groups. They saw themselves giving in to their husbands with an attendant loss of satisfaction. Certainly they appeared to describe more stress in their families than did other parent groups, and described themselves as looking after other people more than they themselves were looked after. Principal components analysis suggested they felt more hurt, and less co-operation within family groups than did mothers of highly-socialized children.

Fathers of aggressive children perceived giving in as a less conciliatory process than fathers of highly-socialized children. The latter group could associate the constructs with support, looks after,

understands and forgives. They described themselves as giving in more to their wives than their wives perceived to be the case. In fact both groups of men viewed giving in less conflictually than their wives, possibly because they do less of it as a consequence of their more peripheral involvement in their families.

All parent groups reported some difficulties with the presence of coercive constructs in their families. However, only the parents of aggressive children described situations which suggested psychological isolation of problem members. In families with highly-socialized children, coercive constructs could also occur in the presence of co-operative constructs, so reducing the risks of isolation for individuals displaying problem behaviours.

2. The role of fathers.

Both groups of men appear relatively unaware of their own construct usage within their families. Their wives' perceptions of family paternal behaviour reinforces an idea of fathers operating peripherally within family interactions. This is disturbing. Lamb (1981) indicated that there are many working mothers of young children. Work forces have become increasingly bolstered by, and many families have become economically dependent on, working mothers. Consequently, the role of fathers in the home has received increasing attention.

Alternatives to traditional family sex-roles have been expressed. According to Lamb (1981), however, the

distribution of family functions has remained largely traditional. Women retain their roles as primary caregivers of young children, even when men increase their performance in household duties. As a result, fathers continue to interact less than mothers with their children.

Concentration on the uneven distribution of time involved in interaction may hide different parental behaviours necessary for healthy family functioning and so underestimate the contributions of fathers. However, whatever interactional contributions men may be making within their families appear largely lost on both them and their wives. Parents simply do not see fathers as central to family functioning. This is consistent with the findings of Hamilton (1979) who surveyed numerous studies on parental influence. He concluded that the most common tendency in statements about fathers' influence was to underestimate it. Most of that research involved questioning mothers and sometimes children. This study supports Hamilton's findings and also suggests that fathers underestimate, or at least undervalue, their own contributions to family development.

3. Parental agreement

With general degrees of correlation between grids ranging from 0.37 to 0.69 it is fair to say that perceptions held by the various parent groups in this study were typified by more rather than less similarity. Differences which occurred were statistically significant.

A perusal of group means shows parents of highly-socialized children claiming a greater presence of co-operatively associated constructs within their families. Similarly, parents of aggressive children acknowledge a greater presence of coercively associated constructs within their families.

The findings of Ferguson and Allen (1974) that parents of children exhibiting deviant social behaviour generally came from families demonstrating discrepant parent attitudes; and those of Ferguson, Partyka and Lester (1974) that parents of well-adjusted children show closer agreement in parental perception do not concur with the findings in this study. These findings give more support to those of Lendholm and Touliatos (1981a) that parents have moderate agreement in perceptions of their children. There is also tentative support for the position of Snyder et al (1977, 1978) and Messe et al (1979) that person perception factors in the perceivers may pre-dispose them to infer negative or positive quantities in others. Parents of aggressive children reported less of the co-operatively associated constructs and more of of the coercively associated constructs within their families. The level of support which can be given to the effects of parent-based person perception factors in this study can only be tentative until comparison is made with objective data related to the presence of co-operative and coercive processes later in this study. The presence of significantly more negative perceptions in the absence of

significantly more coercive practices in families with aggressive children would strengthen support for perceiver-based person perception variables operating within families.

4. Meaningfulness of the results.

In judging the value of the above results the question arises, how meaningful and valid are the results obtained from the use of the repertory grid? Does the technique have any value and can the results be separated from those that could be obtained from random answers? Rowe and Slater (1976) created one hundred 12 x 12 random grids involving 6,600 recorded values to contrast with results obtained from experimental grids. Random grids generate first principal components accounting for relatively small percentages of the total variation e.g. 27.9% in the Rowe and Slater grids. First principal components in the present study accounted for 43% to 60% of variation.

Meaningfulness is a different issue. Statistical analysis has shown significant trends within construct means across the relationship elements, in the perceptions parents held of their families. Heeding the cautions of Tagg (1977) and Yorke (1978) concerning the need to pay more attention to the variation involved, it can be seen from a study of the latent roots associated with each component that in all groups variation is small. While that variation has been shown to be consistently different between groups the psychological significance of the

differences is not necessarily clear. Determination of the psychological significance of such grid results as these may lie in their relationship to other measurable variables. In the meantime they act as indicators of family health and assist in the process of hypothesis generation.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE PARENTS RELATIONSHIP

Introduction

1. Interdependency

Increasingly, children are being viewed as part of a family system of interdependent members. Complex dynamic interactions are entailed as changes occur within and between dyadic subsystems involved within families (Feiring and Lewis, 1978). The measurement of simultaneous reciprocal influences involved in child-family interaction has in recent times (Lerner and Spanier, 1978) included attempts to explore those influences across lifespans.

Direct effects between parents and children are well documented in past socialization research (Kotler and Hammond, 1981), and more recent research efforts have shown how parents affect children indirectly through the levels of inter-spouse support, transitivity in mother-father-child triad relationships and parental modelling of cross-sex interactions. Marital accord is known to be associated with childrens' health and adjustment (Westley and Epstein, 1969; Siegelman et al, 1970; Odorn et al, 1971.), and discordant marital relationships are related to deviant or disturbed child behaviour (Minuchin et al, 1975; Kent and O'Leary, 1976; Patterson,Cobb and Ray. 1973; Emery, 1982.) and physical handicap (Howard, 1978; Korn et

al, 1978.).

There is also a growing, if not conclusive body of recent research suggesting that the presence of children in the family, on the average, lowers the marital happiness of parents (Le Masters, 1957; Rollins and Feldman, 1970; Feldman, 1971; Ryder, 1973; Glenn and Weaver, 1978; Campbell, Converse and Rodgers, 1976; Campbell, 1981.) Steger and Kotler (1974) argue that problematic child behaviour is likely to adversely affect marital relationships even if it is not the primary source of the problem.

Lerner and Spanier (1976, 1978) proposed a dynamic interactional model to explain individual development as both biological and social. All individuals are changing and so our effects on others are moderated by our developmental levels, and in turn by the developmental levels of those with whom we interact. The feedback we gain from our interactions will in part, be determined by developmental differences. The socio-economic environment in which we function will also influence our evaluations, and that in turn is shaped by the individuals within it. Accordingly dynamic interaction is perceived as a continuous circular process involving maturation, experience, environmental and historical factors. Research evidence exists to suggest that children have an effect on parent-child relationships (Bell, 1977; Gewirtz and Boyd, 1976; Lewis and Rosenblum, 1974.). This effect has been found to vary according to the sex of the child (Lewis,

1972; Parke and Sawin, 1976.), sex of the parent (Osofsky and O'Connel, 1972.) and age of the child (Harper, 1975). Interaction effects of child age, child sex and parent sex in parent-child interaction have been observed (Parke and Sawin,1977). Baldwin (1946) and Steinberg and Hill (1977) observed parents altering their restrictions on children as new developmental milestones were reached by the children.

Latterly more attention has been focussed on the impact which developing children have on parents' marriages through parent-child interactions. Lamb (1976) documented that family dyadic relationships do not occur in isolation, noting, for example, mother-infant interaction is different according to whether fathers are present or absent.

Parke and Sawin (1977) found that mother-infant interaction made more sense to researchers when they obtained attitudinal information from mothers concerning the meaning of those interactions. Rollins and Galligan (1978) also suggest that systematic exchanges occur between the parent-child dyad and the marital dyad. They argue that the child influences the parent-child interactions which in turn influence parental attitudes and practices. The parent who is also a spouse, participates in marital interactions which in turn influence the spouses' evaluations of the quality of the marital relationship. Therefore, the child indirectly influences the marital dyad by influencing parent-child interactions which go on to indirectly influence marital interaction. Marital interaction is held to be reflected in the marital satisfaction of one or both

spouses. As a result, Rollins and Galligan suggest that parents' marital satisfaction is indirectly influenced by the presence, number and age of their children. A survey of literature by Rollins and Galligan (1978) related marital satisfaction to family development, suggesting a U-shaped pattern of marital satisfaction. That is, satisfaction decreases during marriage simultaneously with the arrival and development of the oldest child in the family until he or she reaches adolescence. From adolescence onwards, until the children leave home, marital satisfaction increases. This generalization is not without exception (Spanier et al, 1975; Rollins and Cannon, 1974). However, Rollins and Galligan (1978) conclude that considering the number of empirical studies available on various populations using different measuring instruments and different types of research designs that obtained similar results, a generalization can be made for those couples who remain married: a U-shaped relationship exists between transition stages of the family career and reported marital satisfaction. The data appears congruent with the idea that a presence of dependent children in the home places restrictions on the time, energy and economic resources of parents and leads to a decrease in marital satisfaction. Rollins and Galligan (1978) further suggest that satisfaction with spouse companionship may provide the best insight into possible effects of developing children on marital quality. Supporting this notion are studies by Feldman and Rogoff (1968), Ryder (1973), Blood and Wolfe

(1960), Rollins and Feldman (1970), Rollins and O'Connor (1974), Miller (1976) and Orthner (1975). Findings from these studies suggest there is a decrease in both companionship and marital satisfaction as families make transition into stages where dependent children are present in the home. Both variables improve as children mature and leave home.

Glenn and McLanahan (1982) utilising data from six U.S.A. national surveys conducted from 1973 to 1978, concluded that the negative effects of children were quite pervasive and likely to outweigh the positive effects among spouses of both sexes irrespective of education, race, religion and employment. The only sub-group in which the effects were unlikely to be negative were white persons claiming their ideal family size is four or more children. Even then there was little convincing evidence of distinctly positive mean effects. Glenn and McLanahan speculated that in societies where marriage is expected to involve high degrees of emotional and sexual intimacy and to be the spouses' primary source of companionship, there is an inherent tendency for children to lower marital happiness and satisfaction whether or not they are planned or wanted. Children tend to interfere with marital companionship and to lessen the spontaneity of sexual relations. Their presence in the family creates the potential for jealousy and competition for affection, time and attention (Ryder, 1973; Rosenblatt, 1974).

In assessing the quality of the parents' relationship

one cannot escape from the view that any marriage contains two marriages, reflecting the separate experience of each spouse with the other, with other family members and with external systems (Bernard, 1972). Over the last twenty years research has supported the view that marital satisfaction is also related to competent performances of family roles and role strain within the developing family (Barry, 1970; Hicks and Platt, 1970). Bahr (1976) argues that role competence is one of the primary resources available in marriage.

2. Role strain.

Role strain is an intrapersonal phenomenon which, in terms of family, refers to the difficulty experienced by a family member in measuring up to the obligations and demands in their own role positions. It refers to stress within people who are perceiving themselves as either not measuring up to their own expectations, or measuring up only with difficulty. When the various roles held within the family are accumulated and added to the social positions held in the family (mother-wife-sister etc.) an extensive number of dyadic relationships can occur, increasing the chances of role strain (Rollins and Galligan, 1978). Numerous studies have suggested that the quality of one's role enactments and the perceived quality of a partner's role enactments influence marital satisfaction (Burr, 1971; Brinley, 1975; Nye and McLaughlin, 1974; Kotlar, 1965). Several studies have found

that perceived quality of one's spouse's role enactments is more highly correlated with one's own marital satisfaction than is perceived role enactment of oneself (McLaughton, 1974). Brinley (1975) found that role competence of a spouse was a better predictor of a wife's than of a husband's satisfaction. Taking social-emotional behaviour alone, it is the husband's behaviour which distinguishes couples whose marriages are in trouble. Barry (1970) found distressed husbands to be less supportive and conciliatory than other husbands, while wives did not differ much from each other. Luckey (1960) found satisfied couples to judge each others attitudes more favourably than unsatisfied couples. Dean (1966) concluded that marital adjustment scores of both spouses are predicted more strongly from wives' ratings of their husbands' attributes than from husbands' ratings of wives.

Diverse evidence suggests that husbands' role enactment is more important than that of wives for predicting marital satisfaction of both spouses. Evidence is growing to suggest that traditional divisions of labour and role expectations are still entrenched in society in spite of consciousness-raising efforts and attempts to establish more equalitarian life style (Lewis et al, 1981; Yogev, 1981). It is quite conceivable that the degree of supportive behaviour husbands show for their wives' roles and the effective execution of their own roles can have indirect impacts on their own marital happiness through the satisfaction and positive responses which it elicits from

wives.

Kotler and Hammond (1981) in a study of the marital relations among the parents of disturbed children concluded that the wife is stll responsible for the well-being of family members and the quality of marital relationships. Husbands' failure to participate adequately in family life was found to cause women difficulty in meeting their role prescriptions and to affect their levels of marital satisfaction. Kotler and Hammond concluded that their findings were consistent with those of Rollins and Galligan (1978) that parents who have both dependent children and a lack of marital companionship can suffer from increased role strain due to overload of parental role activity and this can lead to a decline in the marital satisfaction of both partners.

Rollins and Galligan based their work on that of Burr (1973) and Rollins and O'Connor (1974) which suggested that the accumulation of family roles varies with transitional stages within the family and is greatest when dependent children live at home. Rollins and Connor suggested that as role strain increased for one spouse, his or her enactment of roles would be hampered and the other spouse would experience more negative evaluation of the partner's role enactments and become dissatisfied with the marriage. Rollins and Galligan (1978) also suggest that the greater the family role strain the more likely it will be that an individual experiences negative attitudes, one of which might be a relative self-depreciation in the enactment of

marital roles.

Harry (1976) and Rollins (1967) suggest the school-age stage as one of the greatest role accumulation and potential role strain. Fathers are more likely to spend greater time in the provider role and to express inability to meet the demands of their other family roles. Harry found fathers of school-age children seeking very little personal happiness in non-routine, extra-familial events. Parents must frequently avoid commitments which conflict with those occasions on which children must be transported to various places. However, some studies have indicated that if family companionship and marital companionship are integrated, role strain is less (Miller, 1976; Burr et al, 1979).

Miller (1976) suggested that those parents oriented to both roles of spouse and parent found meaning and satisfaction in their joint activities rather than seeing their responsibility to their children impinging on their marital dyad or individual freedoms.

The focus of this section has not been on marital adjustment per se. Similarly, satisfaction and dissatisfaction have not been conceptualized as two ends of a continuum. Marital relationships, attitudes towards children and effects of child characteristics on their adult care-givers are complex phenomenon in their own right as well as in their interactions with each other. From a developmental perspective family transitions are continuous and what may appear as marital adjustment at one stage may

include qualities that make for marital discord at a later stage (Dizard, 1968).

3. Self and spousal perceptions.

In a study of the relationship between marital distress, child behaviour problems, personal adjustment, maternal personality and maternal parenting behaviour, Bond and McMahon (1984) found a non-significant trend for children of maritally distressed mothers to be more deviant than maritally non-distressed mothers. Bond and McMahon suggested that maritally disturbed mothers do not have greater parenting difficulties than maritally non-disturbed. Perceptions by maritally disturbed mothers of their children as deviant may be biased by their own negative feelings of themselves and their marriages. However, because maternal perception has been found to be a prime discriminator between clinic and non-clinic referred children (Griest, Forehand, Wells and McMahon, 1980), these children may be reasonably normally behaved, but be at risk for inappropriate clinic referral. Similarly, they may be at risk from deteriorating parent-child relationships. Bond and McMahon concluded that assessment of marital functioning needed to go beyond the marital dyad to examine other family problems and perceptions associated with marital distress. Emery and O'Leary (1984) speculating on their findings that mother ratings of marital discord were more consistently associated with their own rather than teachers' ratings of child behaviour, suggested the

presence of a negative halo effect; an unhappy marriage may lead mothers to perceive their children as more poorly adjusted. This is consistent with established literature suggesting that disturbed child behaviour is often a symptom of broader family conflicts (Gurman and Kniskern, 1981; Kent and O'Leary, 1976; Patterson, Cobb and Ray, 1973; Emery, 1983). The works of these authors and others such as Lerner and Spanier (1978, 1980), and Rollins and Galligan (1978), indicating child effects on adults, highlights the interdependence between symptoms presented by a family member and patterns of family relations. Larson, (1975) stressed the co-orientational nature of family activities and noted that the actions and interactions of family members take into account the concerns and reactions of other family members. Attention must, therefore, be given to each family member's perception of family relations since these affect the character of their interpersonal relationships.

Perception of spousal relationships has been measured previously in clinical settings with the aid of the Repertory Grid (Ryle, 1975, 1976; Wijisinghe and Wood, 1976; Kotler and Chetwynd, 1980; Ryle and Breen, 1974; Bannister and Bott, 1973.) and with the dyad grid also (Ryle, 1981 Ryle and Lunghi, 1970; Ryle and Breen, 1972a, b; Ryle and Lipshitz, 1975, 1976; Ryle, 1979b, 1980.). Usually the grids have been used to differentiate adjusted from maladjusted couples or to highlight pre- and post-therapy changes in the perceptions of family members.

Kotler and Chetwynd (1980) utilized parents, target children and nearest-age siblings from twenty families presenting themselves for treatment at a child psychiatric clinic. They measured changes in family perception following therapy. This study is one of the few grid studies available on parents of clinic children where the marital relationship was not identified as distressed. However, as far as the author is aware no grid studies exist which measure perceptions of both parents of aggressive children and contrast them to perceptions of parents who have highly-socialized children.

The purpose of this section of the study is to use the Repertory Grid to measure the perceptions spouses hold of themselves and their partners in the spousal dyad within family settings. The Locke-Wallace short form Marital Adjustment Test was used to determine the degree of marital adjustment reported by partners. It was anticipated that the fine-grain detail of the grid findings would expand on the more global evaluation which the M.A.T. provides. These measures will be used as indicators of whether parents of aggressive children perceive extra role strain as compromising their spousal relationships.

Hypothesis 1.

In light of evidence suggesting that traditional divisions of labour and role allocations in families are being maintained, women are most likely to be responsible for child upbringing, and maintainence of affective levels

in the family. It is hypothesised that with the extra pressures this brings for them, women in both groups will express less satisfaction with their husbands' functioning than the men will express of their wives' functioning. This will be evidenced in:-

(a) Greater reported presence of coercively associated constructs between each couple.

(b) Lower reported presence of co-operatively associated constructs between each couple.

(c) Lower scores for women on the short form Locke-wallace Marital Adjustment Test. (Locke-Wallace, 1959).

Hypothesis 2.

Given the literature suggesting children reduce marital happiness, it is hypothesised that parents of aggressive childen will report lower marital satisfaction. This will be evidenced for parents of aggressive children in lower Marital Adjustment Test scores.

Hypothesis 3.

Rollins and Galligan (1978) suggest that within a symbolic-interaction framework, marital satisfaction of self is highly correlated with perceived quality of roles enacted by self and spouse. It is hypothesised that marital satisfaction as indicated by the M.A.T. will:-

(a) Positively correlate with the utilization of co-operatively associated constructs between spouses.

(b) Negatively correlate with the utilization of coercively associated constructs between spouses.

Hypothesis 4.

Jacobson and Moore (1980) reported that pleasing behaviours are more predictive of daily satisfaction for happy couples and that an absence of displeasing behaviour was more predictive of daily satisfaction for distressed couples. On the basis of co-operatively based behaviours being more associated with satisfying relationships, it is hypothesised that parents experiencing the satisfaction of raising highly-socialised children will report higher levels of intra-familial co-operation and lower levels of intra-familial coercion than parents experiencing the problems in raising aggressive children.

Method

1. Subjects and procedures.

All participating couples were administered the dyad grid and the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Test (short form) described in Chapter Two. The tests were administered towards the end of the evening spent in the laboratory setting of the Child and family Guidance Centre. The constructs and elements provided were those listed in Appendix 5. and involved a five-point Likert-type scale for rating constructs against elements. Of the thirteen provided constructs six were associated with co-operative processes and five were coercive processes. For analysis, empahasis was placed on the overall coercive and co-operative processes rather than on individual constructs. Co-operatively associated constructs included:-

- Is affectionate towards
- Looks after.
- Understands.
- Supports
- Trusts.
- Forgives

Coercively associated constructs included:-

- Is cross with
- Ignores
- Criticises
- Hurts the feelings of
- Is scared of

The two constructs not clearly associated with either coercion or co-operation were:-

- Gives into
- Is dependent on

2. Marital Adjustment Test. (Short form.)

The Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Test is a fifteen item multiple choice inventory derived from the fundamental items of six marital adjustment tests used prior to 1959. It has acceptable reliability and validity and has been used widely as a screening device in research on marital satisfaction. The possible scores range from 2 to 158. Of the well-adjusted group tested in the original validation 96% achieved scores of 100 or more. A score of less than 100 is conventionally regarded as indicative of marital distress.

Results

1. Grid Discrepancies.

The results section includes a number of within-sex and between-sex comparisons of grid and M.A.T. data as a means of obtaining measures on the differences across family types and within partnerships on perceptions of spousal relationships and reported marital adjustment. Three analyses of variance are presented to determine what differences occur in the perceptions of spousal co-operation and coercion between partners in one group compared to partners in another group, between the same sexes across groups and between couples within each group. This is followed by the results of the Locke-Wallace M.A.T. with comparisons made between-and-within each sex. Finally within-sex results are reported on the relatonship between M.A.T. and Grid findings and DELTA analysis is utilized to indicate within-sex differences in reported perceptions of overall family co-operation and coercion.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was applied to partners' evaluations of both their own received-from and their given-to spouses co-operatively and coercively associated constructs. This was to determine if there were any greater between spouse differences associated with one group more than another. The means of the two groups are presented in Table 5.1. Positive values indicate that raters rated themselves higher on the use of a group of constructs than did their partners. Negative values

Table 5.1. Mean sent and received differences in grid construct usage. Between sex use of co-operative and coercive constructs.

SEE ERRATA

Construct use.	Groups Group One	Group Two	
A. Co-operative(6 constructs)			
Fathers	0.571	-0.050	N/S
Mothers	-0.381	-0.600	N.S
B. Coercive(5 constructs)			
Fathers	-0.143	-0.050	N/S
Mothers	0.905	-0.400	N/S
C. Total Discrepencies (11 constructs)			
Fathers	1.667	1.050	N/S
Mothers	-0.238	-0.850	N/S

Table 5.2. Mean sent and received differences in grid construct usage. Within sex use of co-operative and coercive constructs.

Construct use.	Groups Group One	Group Two	
A. Co-operative(6 constructs)			
Sent by husbands (me to spouse)	25.571	27.100	
Received by husbands (spouse to me)	25.429	27.350	*
Sent by wives (me to spouse)	25.048	26.750	*
Received by wives (spouse to me)	25.000	27.150	***
B. Coercive(5 constructs)			
Sent by husbands	14.238	13.450	
Received by husbands	13.762	13.450	
Sent by wives	14.667	13.850	
Received by wives	14.143	13.400	

* p < .05 ***p < .005

indicate that raters rated themselves lower on a group of constructs than did their partners.

The ANOVA of mean discrepencies showed no significant differences between the parent groups when each sex was evaluated by self and spouse in terms of the perceived mean use of co-operative and coercive constructs on each other (Appendix 5.1). Undoubtedly partners will differ in their views of construct usage on each other, but that difference is no greater between the parents of aggressive children compared to that between the parents of highly-socialized children.

A further analysis of variance was applied to the data, this time comparing same sex evaluation of sent and received cnstructs between them and their partners. The means of the groups are presented in Table 5.2 with the ANOVA summary in Appendix 5.2.

The greatest differences occurred within the use of co-operatively associated constructs between spouses. Wives' perceptions of their husbands' use of co-operation [$F(1,39) = p < 0.005$], mothers perceived self-use of co-operation [$F(1,39) = 5.886$, $p < 0.02$], husbands' perception of wives' use of co-operation [$F(1,39) = 4.218$, $p < 0.046$] and a not significant result, but one consistent with these findings of husbands' prceived self-use of co-operation $F(1,39) = 3.187$, $p < 0.082$], were the highest contributions to variance in perceptions on the use of coercive and co-operatively associated constructs between spouses.

Parents of highly-socialized children reported more reciprocal co-operation with their partners than was reported between parents of aggressive children. While no significant differences were reported in the use or reception of coercively associated constructs by either men or women in either group, the mean reported levels were consistently lower for parents of high-socialized children.

A third ANOVA of sex by group differences in the use of co-operatively and coercively associated constructs showed no significant differences in their use by couples. The respective "me to spouse" means listed in Table 5.2. were contrasted between spouses; as were the respective "spouse to me" in the same table. The results reflected a non-significant trend for men in both groups to report more sent and received co-operation between spouses. The same trend existed for mothers to report more sent coercion and for mothers of aggressive children to report more received coercion from their partners.

2. Marital Adjustment Test. (Short form)

M.A.T. scores were subjected to Student-t test analysis for independent samples. Mean scores comparing marital adjustment of husbands and wives are given in Table 5.3.

The findings indicate that no significant differences exist between spouses as to their marital adjustment. However, same sex comparisons between both groups indicate that significant differences exist in marital adjustment as

measured by the M.A.T. between parents of aggressive children on the one hand and parents of highly-socialized children on the other. Parents of aggressive children have significantly lower M.A.T.scores. This held true for both men and women.

3. Grid and M.A.T. correlations.

Pearson correlation co-efficients were calculated for comparisons of within-sex differences in the co-operatively and coercively associated conditions in Table 5.2, and with the M.A.T. (Table 5.4) indicates the correlation co-efficients and level of significance for each M.A.T. and grid comparison.

For both men and women the simple correlations indicate a statistical independence between co-operatively and coercively associated constructs when related to marital adjustment. For both sexes marital adjustment is significantly and positively correlated with the reported levels of given and received co-operation. The reported levels of given and received coercion negatively correlate with marital adjustment for all groups but less noticeably and with a less clearcut pattern of significance in the findings. For wives the most significant negative correlations were between marital adjustment and their reported receiving and giving of coerciveness between spouses. To a lesser extent husbands' marital adjustment was negatively related to the coerciveness which women reported themselves using on their husbands.

Table 5.3. Mean M.A.T. scores for parents.

Group		Mean	S.D.	T-val.	2-Tail prob.
Husbands	(1)	108.28	15.68	-2.097	0.05
	(2)	120.20	18.06		
Wives	(1)	113.14	15.57	-2.301	0.05
	(2)	126.15	16.06		
Partners					
Husbands	(1)	108.28	15.68	-0.8567	N/S
Wives	(1)	113.14	15.57		
Husbands	(2)	120.20	18.51	-0.9667	N/S
Wives	(2)	126.15	16.46		

(1) Parents of aggressive children.
(2) Parents of highly-socialized children.

Table 5.4. Non-zero correlations between the interspousal use of constructs and the M.A.T.

Construct use.	Wives	Husbands
A. Co-operative constructs		
Sent by wives (me to spouse)	.4137 **	.6826 ***
Sent by husbands (me to spouse)	.5774 ***	.3075 *
Received by wives (spouse to me)	.4746 **	.5653 ***
Received by husbands (spouse to me)	.7031 ***	.6440 ***
B. Coercive constructs		
Sent by wives	-0.1706	-0.3402 *
Sent by husbands	-0.5010 ***	-0.2113
Received by wives	-0.4886 ***	-0.2625
Received by husbands	-0.1459	-0.1870
Mother M.A.T.	1.00	0.6525 ***

* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001

Table 5.5. Within-sex differences in parent reports of family use of co-operatively and coercively associated constructs.

SEE ERRATA

CONSTRUCTS	HUSBANDS			
	Group 1	Group 2	T-val	2-Tail Prob.
Co-operative				
1. Affectionate	4.190	4.555	4.355	.001
2. Looks after	4.119	4.370	6.451	.001
4. Trusts	3.971	4.640	11.139	.001
7. Understands	3.590	4.085	7.588	.001
10. Forgives	4.019	4.355	5.291	.001
12. Supports	3.810	4.285	4.599	.001
Coercive				
3. Cross	3.819	3.840	0.182	N/S
5. Hurts feelings of	2.797	2.490	4.882	.001
6. Ignores	2.370	2.020	5.341	.001
8. Scared of	1.990	1.600	5.270	.001
11. Criticises	3.810	3.140	6.859	.001
	WIVES			
	Group 1	Group 2	T-val	2-Tail Prob.
Co-operative				
1. Affectionate	4.244	4.520	3.137	.005
2. Looks after	4.039	4.280	3.116	.005
4. Trusts	4.210	4.355	2.701	.001
7. Understands	3.481	4.025	4.726	.001
10. Forgives	3.825	4.316	6.537	.001
12. Supports	4.006	4.398	4.852	.001
Coercive				
3. Cross	3.996	3.715	3.765	.001
5. Hurts feelings of	3.090	2.644	2.819	.01
6. Ignores	2.506	2.150	2.825	.01
8. Scared of	1.844	1.430	5.413	.001
11. Criticises	3.624	3.290	4.231	.001

4. DELTA comparisons.

DELTA data on parent perceptions reported in Chapter Four were examined for within-sex differences in reported levels of family co-operation and coercion.

Table 5.5 reports the DELTA differences in both parents' perceptions of family use of co-operatively and coercively associated constructs and contain all reported family relationships.

It shows clearly the pattern of significantly higher levels of reported co-operatively associated constructs between family members in families containing highly-socialised target children. It also clearly indicates that there are significantly higher levels of reported coercively associated constructs between family members in families containing aggressive target children.

Discussion.

The results obtained in the analyses showed some significant differences between the parents of aggressive and highly-socialized children.

Firstly however, no significant differences occur between groups as to the overall discrepancies reported in construct usage between partners. This suggests that while differences exist between parents in their giving and receiving of constructs, whatever differences exist are no greater between the parents of aggressive children in their perceptions of usage than between the perceptions of usage by parents of highly-socialized children. Consequently parents generally agree-disagree to the same extent in their respective use of the listed constructs.

When the analysis turned to within-sex differences in the evaluations of construct usage, clear differences emerged in the giving and receiving of constructs. Parents of highly-socialized children perceived themselves giving to and receiving more co-operation from their spouses. The most significant difference was in the degree of co-operation which mothers felt themselves to be receiving from their husbands. The M.A.T. findings indicated that while parents of aggressive children need not be categorized as unhappily married, their marital adjustment is significantly lower than that of parents with highly-socialized children. It may be that as neither group suffered from poor marital adjustment, greater

between-spouse agreement exists on the degree of coercion and co-operation in their relationships.

As regards the within-sex evaluation of construct usage the findings suggest a near-significant difference exists in the expected direction between men on the degree of co-operation they aim towards their wives. Women report the most significant differences in the receiving of co-operation from their partners. These two findings suggest that mothers of aggressive children experience less co-operation from their husbands than that which is experienced by mothers of highly- socialized children. Jacobson, Waldron and Moore (1980) suggest that among non-distressed couples the presence of pleasing behaviours has more influence on marital satisfaction than the presence of displeasing behaviours. Similarly the presence of co-operatively associated constructs between relationships appears more highly related to marital adjustment in both of the maritally non-distressed groups. This finding is supported by the larger and more significant positive correlations between the M.A.T. scores for both sexes, and the giving and receiving of co-operation. The correlations between M.A.T. and coercively associated constructs were consistently negative but less consistently significant. The finding that when the M.A.T. scores are lower so reported levels of co-operatively associated constructs are also lower is consistent with several studies (Kotler and Hammond, 1981; Nye and McLaughlin, 1976; Dean, 1966.) suggesting that wives

quality of their marital relationships.

A pattern of greater co-operation within families with highly-socialized children was indicated by the DELTA analysis. It highlighted significant differences in the use of intra-familial coercion which previously was only indicated as a non-significant trend when comparing mean levels of coercion between spouses only.

This study does not clarify whether parents become less maritally adjusted as they have dependent children, or if their marital adjustment is reduced from the strains of raising aggressive children. Neither does it clarify whether child adjustment altered in response to their parents' marital adjustment. Those findings would need to evolve from longitudinal studies. However, as both groups of parents were comparatively happily adjusted within their marriages there is little evidence to suggest that the aggressiveness of Group One children is in response to parental disharmony.

Recent findings suggest that traditional divisions of labour and role expectations are still strong in the family. If this is so, findings in this study that mothers of aggressive children find a comparative lack in co-operation from their husbands in their respective difficult parenting roles supports the view of Kotler and Hammond (1981) that the degree of support each spouse gives the other in such families will be reduced, role execution will be less effective and marital adjustment affected. In effect a child influence on the parent dyad is suggested.

1. Discussion of the hypotheses.

Hypothesis one was not supported. In fact contrary to predictions women reported higher marital adjustment than men. These findings from the M.A.T. are in contrast with other literature suggesting that women report more marital frustration, dissatisfaction and unhappiness and more frequently consider separation or divorce (Bernard, 1972). However, Laws (1971) suggests that given the opportunities to live within a traditional definition of roles, women adjust better than men. Rapoport and Rapoport (1975) also suggest that individuals can go only so far in establishing their ideal new definitions of sex-roles in relationships before a point of discomfort is reached. At the point where discomfort is experienced, the behaviours threaten one's notion of self-esteem. Yogev (1981) expanded on this theme in a study of the equalitarian relationships of University women and suggested that in order not to cross identity tension lines, and also to be happily married, many women need the traditional unequal sharing of housework and child care. It legitimizes their achievement because they do not relinquish traditional roles and obligations: instead they expand and add new roles to old roles. Under such conditions women could carry larger burdens of family responsibility while maintaining their self-esteem and sense of achievement in their marriages. It is reasonable to speculate that an inverted U relationship exists between the carrying of traditionally defined sex role burdens and

satisfaction through maintained self-esteem. At some point the burdens must become destructive on marital adjustment. It would appear that the women in this study do not as yet feel overburdened to an extent seriously threatening their marital satisfaction.

Hypotheses Two, Three, and Four were supported. Both groups can be classified as adjusted in their marriages but parents of aggressive children were less maritally adjusted to a statistically significant degree as predicted in hypothesis Two.

For Hypothesis Three the predicted relationship between the M.A.T. and construct usage between parents was supported. Its most significant relationships were between marital adjustment as measured by the M.A.T. and the usage of co-operative constructs.

As predicted in Hypothesis Four parents of highly - socialized children reported lower levels of intra-familial coerciveness and higher levels of co-operation.

It is worth speculating from the parents' evaluations of inter-spouse and intra-familial coerciveness, that for the parents of aggressive children their marriages assume greater importance within the context of less satisfying parenting. For parents of highly-socialized children reporting more co-operation and less coercion between family members, and greater intra-spousal co-operation their marriages are more likely to be a successful integration of their individual, couple and family roles. For parents of aggressive children there is the likelihood

of less successful integration of these roles. The data suggests that mothers of aggressive children received less positive feedback from their husbands in terms of the six co-operatively associated constructs, while husbands in turn overestimated their own use of co-operation.

This study has shown that aggressive children need not come from families with maritally distressed parents. However, they can evolve from families where less co-operation rather than more coercion exists between parents, and coercion exists between parent-child dyads. A question raised is whether, for some children, reductions in co-operation are a necessary pre-requisite for increasing levels of coerciveness reported by other writers in more maritally distressed families. Reciprocity in relationships is a relevant dimension in this discussion in spite of arguments over its measurement and role in family relationships (Burgess, 1981; Gottman, 1979; Patterson and Reid, 1970, Levinger, 1979; Burgess and Nielson, 1974.). Whether reciprocation be immediate or delayed, attention to, and awareness of it, may vary across stages of relationships.

It is reasonable to speculate that the use of positive behaviours and the perception of co-operation being used in relationships are related. There is evidence to show that distressed families are less likely than normal families to reciprocate one another's positive behaviours and more likely to reciprocate negative or coercive behaviours (Birchler, 1972). Further study is warranted to relate

stages of family development and role strain with reciprocity and perceptions of coercion and co-operation. The aim would be to determine whether a sequential pattern exists of reducing marital satisfaction affected initially by reduced co-operation and later by a presence of coerciveness amongst families which decline in their functioning as they progress through their various stages.

Patterson (1986) has suggested that inept parenting skills set a process in motion which causes children to be rejected by peers, fail academically and to have low self-esteem. Possible factors leading to such ineptness having a growing effect on decreased intra-familial co-operation may include environmental stressors, isolation from supports and child variables. It may be that this process unfolds at different levels. Depending on the stage of progression, families may be aware of low co-operation or high coercion, or perhaps be rejecting or typified by low parental warmth. Parents may gradually insulate themselves from their aggressive children, and those children in turn lose peer support and develop poor self-images, or intact self-images which perceive the world as coercive and deserving of punishment.

CHAPTER SIX

PERCEPTIONS CHILDREN HAVE OF THEIR FAMILIES

Introduction

1. Bipolarity of relationships and the whole family.

The traditional approach to the study of parent-child relationships has been to focus on the impact of specific child-rearing practices on the child's subsequent behavioural and social development (Cooper, 1983; Schaffer, 1965; Duck, 1981). Recent efforts, however, have emphasised the bi-directionality of parent-child relationships (Lerner and Spanier, 1980). This more recent view assumes that parents and children attend to and influence each other. In so doing they may exercise considerable control over each others' lives. Hinde (1979) describes the social relationships which exist within families as ones developed over time through frequent interactions influenced by each individual's previous history of interacting with each other. Family relationships may vary in terms of the quality of the interaction, such as the frequency of negative and positive effects (Burgess and Conger, 1978), coercive exchanges (Patterson, 1977, 1982, 1986), etc. The quality of a relationship obviously includes the notion of how much involvement exists between individuals making up a relationship. According to Kagan (1980) a child's sense of

virtue and worth in a family comes from his evaluation of him or herself through the congruence between behaviour and standards, evaluative reactions of others and the child's perception of his/her value in the eyes of his/her parents and other important people in their lives. A child's behaviour therefore, is influenced by the behaviour of surrounding parents, siblings, relatives, teachers, babysitters and others acting as social agents. Wahler (1980) and others argue that the successful treatment of child, family and marital problems is best approached by taking into consideration the wider range of relationships and their effects within which family members are involved.

One of the first researchers to look at the whole family and its surrounding environment in families with "deviant" children was Gerald Patterson. He concluded (Patterson, 1975) that aggressive boys are raised in families comprised of aggressive family members, especially siblings. Consequently, he concluded, it would not be productive to focus all treatment or assessment on just the targeted child. Arnold, Levine and Patterson (1975) examined changes in sibling behaviour as a function of treatment directed towards one child in the family. The rates of deviant behaviour of the siblings of twenty-seven aggressive boys were studied. Parents were trained in social learning techniques of child management to be specifically applied to the targeted children. At the end of treatment and at six-month follow up there was a significant difference in rates of deviant behaviours per

minute from baseline to post-treatment. There was also a reduction in deviant behaviour from the fifty-five siblings of the target children. Further analysis showed that in pre- and post-treatment phases siblings displayed no greater or less aggressive behaviour than the targeted child. Thus changes in one relationship i.e. parent-target child, influenced another i.e. parent-sibling. Also, a point previously made in this thesis, that parents can be poor assessors of their childrens' behaviours, is reinforced by such a study.

Misperceptions held by family members are important influences on relating skills and relationships leading to capricious labelling, with its attendant negative interactional influences. Some previous research on whole families indicate that family members may well differ in their perceptions of family dynamics. Several studies have indicated that husbands and wives do not always agree on decision making within their families (Granbois and Willett, 1970; Olsen and Rabunsky, 1972; Price-Bonham, 1976; Turk and Bell, 1974). Turk and Bell have also indicated that parents and children do not agree in their assessment of their families' power structure. In a study involving a comparison of data obtained from mothers and fathers concerning child rearing practices in relation to child aggression Eron, Banta, Walder and Laulicht (1961), found that mothers and fathers did not agree in rating their childrens' behaviour. One of the few studies of different family members' perception of adolescent

socialization practices was a study of the view of mothers, fathers and ninth grade sons concerning techniques used in socializing children into occupational roles (Jacobsen, 1971). Only about one half of the families agreed on the socializing techniques. Jacobsen concluded more research was required which used several members of each family. According to McKenry, Price-Bonham and O'Bryant (1981), all studies up to 1981 utilising perception of adolescent socialization have, with the exception of the Jacobsen (1971) study, neglected to look at the wider family.

2. Child self-esteem and conflict

Wald (1976), in a study of abusive families, concludes that knowledge of the child's perceptual system can be utilized to improve that child's environment. Perceptual elements of the parent-child relationship are needed, Wald argues, to aid courts with custody decisions. The child's perceptions may be useful in assessing whether sufficient emotional support exists in the present home and whether the child would be harmed by removal. Perceptions may also provide feedback to abusive parents and may enable them to see how their behaviour affects the child as a prelude to learning new interactional styles. The effects of abuse are unclear (Kinard, 1979; Martin and Beezley, 1977). Variation in findings may be explained by a greater knowledge of the differences in child interpretation of abusive incidents. According to Herzberger, Potts and Dillon (1981), seeing abuse as an incident of parental rejection may be worse

than perceiving it as caused by parents' externally imposed frustrations.

In the most comprehensive research in the area of self-concept, Coopersmith (1967) concludes that the antecedents of high self-esteem in children include nearly total acceptance of children by their parents, clearly defined and enforced limits, and respect and latitude for individual action within the defined limits. Graybill (1978), in an attempt to further Coopersmith's work, reported that children high on self-esteem described their mothers as high in acceptance and nurturance. Crase, Foss and Colbert (1981) in an exploratory attempt to relate child self-concept to paternal behaviours, found acceptance of individuation from fathers correlated only with self-esteem in boys. Low self-esteem has been reported in the literature as related to the presence of parental or family conflicts (Raschke and Raschke, 1979; Watkins, 1976). Investigations into why low child-esteem occurs in the presence of family conflict gives unclear answers. Rosenberg (1965) noted that parent-child conflict rather than conflict between parents increases a child's feelings of worthlessness. Possibly children may bear the brunt of much parental hostility, be encouraged to take sides in parental disputes, or be ignored as parents become pre-occupied with their own problems. As stated earlier, if any of the events are interpreted as rejection it could adversely affect child self-esteem (Cooper, Holman and Braithwaite, 1983). As yet little empirical evidence exists

to test this interpretation. Nevertheless, the argument draws attention to the fact that the marital relationship is merely one dyad among a complex set of family interactions. These other family interactions may play an important role in moderating the impact of marital disharmony on the psychological well-being of children. Cooper et al (1983) in their study of four hundred and sixty-seven nine to twelve year old Australian children concluded that where children perceive conflict between parents or between themselves and their parents, lower self-esteem can be expected. Their research indicates that family cohesion when measured through the child's perception of family relationships has an important influence on the development of self-concept in children. In fact when childrens' perceptions of marital disharmony are taken into consideration there is a consistent relationship with low self-esteem. Greater consistency is reported when the empirical focus shifts away from parental perceptions of marital harmony towards the perceptions of children or outside observers. (Landis, 1960; Nye, 1957; Raschke et al. 1979; Watkins, 1976). According to Cooper et al (1983) unsurprisingly, children who feel isolated within their families do not find their homes supportive and happy. These children score lowest on self-esteem and for them the parent-child relationship is the determining variable. If their perception of that variable had been ignored, a harmonious parental relationship might have predicted higher self-esteem for these children than for

children of conflicting parents.

3. Parenting styles and legitimization of authority.

Dynamics of parent-child relationships are being more adequately understood through comparisons of deviant and normal families. Deviant families receiving the most attention so far are those where there are either aggressive or delinquent children in the home, or where parents have seriously abused or neglected their children. This body of research suggests that behaviours in parent-child relationships are largely due to deficient child management skills (Alexander, 1973; Burgess, 1979; Patterson and Reid, 1970). These studies have also emphasised the interactional character of the parent-child bond, in that these parenting deficits have been found to produce spiralling increases in coercive interactions among children and parents (Burgess and Conger, 1978; Patterson, 1980, 1986).

Wahler's (1979, 1983) studies into the effects of insularity on parenting have indicated that those parents lacking external supports from family, friends and community agencies appear less able to practice consistent contingent parenting strategies. During times of stress coercive cycles are more likely to occur than in families where support is available.

In studies of abused children by Kempe and Kempe (1976, 1978), abused children were found to believe that they deserved their punishment and that their parents' mode

of discipline was right and even normative. Amsterdam, Brill, Bell and Edwards (1979) in their study of adolescents and young adults found that the more severe the punishment experienced while growing up, the more likely the respondents were to believe that the punishment was deserved. However, sampling differences between abused and non-abused respondents are reported to render this study's conclusions ambiguous. However Herzberger, Potts and Dillon (1981) in their study of abused children found these children to perceive themselves as emotionally rejected and so questioned Kempe and Kempe's (1978) findings that children see abuse as rightful and normative. Perceptions of abusive and non-abusive fathers did not differ from each other as strongly as did perceptions of abusive and non-abusive mothers.

An observational study by Patterson (1976) found that parents in families characterized by highly aggressive children employed less effective punishments than parents in non-distressed families. Lack of parental disciplining skill was suggested by the finding that aggressive children were twice as likely as normal children to continue aggressive behaviour following parental punishment. Harris and Howard (1981) in a study of eight hundred and forty-four adolescents, investigated perceptions of reasonableness in the exercise of authority in the home. The acceptance of parental power as reasonable for the sample group was not based on decision-making power which the teenager had, but on their perceptions of how

open-minded and interested the adult was in the adolescent. Harris and Howard made the suggestion that a parent who labels a child's attitudes as "selfish" and "inconsiderate" must feel that the child is not meeting that parent's wishes. In so doing the parent tends to remain oblivious to the wishes and will of the child and this is likely to be perceived as unreasonable. Harris and Howard conclude that studies measured on objective goals, such as who makes the decisions, offer no evidence that the "real" (objective) authority in the family is the perceived (subjective) authority. Consequently the legitimization of authority is an important component in the acceptance of authority. It is essential to know the childrens' perception of the fairness and reasonableness with which that authority is exercised and their perception of their responses to that authority.

Parish, Dostal and Parish (1981) in a study of two hundred and eighty-four fifth to eighth graders, assessed the childrens' perception of their families. Children from families they described as happy evaluated their families significantly more favourably than those from unhappy families. They concluded that on-going familial relationships are important variables and suggest that family members identify those responsible for their families' condition When favourable conditions exist they are favourably evaluated. When involved in more disturbed circumstances then those perceived as responsible are blamed.

These findings tend to suggest that intrafamilial differences exist in the perceptions of disciplining practices between children and their parents (McKenny et al, 1981). What is a meaningful disciplining practice for the parent may not be one for the child and vice versa. The individual "realities" that can exist within any one family need acknowledging in diagnosis and treatment procedures for effective interactions to occur. Hay, Blampied, Church and Priest (1981) in their study of family relationships suggested that parental authority is increasingly questioned as children get older and that within distressed families both parents and children (teenagers in their study) resort almost exclusively to coercive behaviour change techniques because of their short term effectiveness, and because they lack the skills to change behaviour by positive means. Thus aversiveness is likely to increase and positive interactions become fewer. Finally, Beavers (1972), in a study of families which functioned well, concluded that such families must change their perceptions of the reality of change over time. Family myths must not be rigid. As time passes, family members must change and the system must accommodate the new elements. Eventually this necessitates separation as children mature and encounter broader environments. The acceptance of the loss of family members over time is one of the most demanding tasks a family can accept. Beaven claims that acceptance lies at the centre of all skills in the healthy family system.

> "Children grow up and leave the nest; Parents grow old, have failing functions, and die. These stark realities can be faced only by those individuals with reasonably good self-esteem. In such people there is a sense of capability that is not dependent on predictable and unchanging relationships. When both parents can feel hopeful without the necessity for that hope to include forced, unchanging relationships, they establish a love for all the other features seen in healthy family systems. A family member can then operate with respect for his or her own dignity and that of others." (p.43)

Relationships are multi-directional and as well as influencing others, we are influenced by those people and by the contexts within which the relationships occur. Perceptions can be important components of those relationships and can set the scene for labelling and subsequent deterioration in those relationships. Evidence has been presented to suggest that childrens' perceptions can help determine whether sufficient emotional support and parental acceptance exists for children to develop a sense of worthwhileness. Conflict between parents can lead to increased feelings of worthlessness in children; isolation can lead to evaluation of a less supportive and happy home. Parenting style and lack of supports for parents can influence their interaction with children and if sufficiently abusive, parental behaviour can lead to children perceiving themselves either as rejected or deserving the punishments. Individual realities exist

within families as to what is fair and reasonable and whether authority practised is treated as authority accepted by the children within each family. Consequently, the perceptions children hold of their family interactions, and those perceptions parents hold of their children will be important indicators of the likelihood of parental authority being legitimized and of children developing a sense of worthwhileness and support within families.

4. Repertory Grids with children.

A comprehensive survey of the use of grids was completed by Salmon (1976). She reports results by Allison (1972) showing meaningful results obtained from four year olds. Wooster (1970a) reports the use of grids with mentally defective children and concluded that only in the lower end of severe subnormality where virtually no language skills exist could the use of repertory grid techniques be found lacking.

A standard method for introducing the grid to children is difficult to state because of the many existing ways in which grids can be introduced, the ages of the respondents and the purposes for which the technique has been chosen. To children the grid can be given individually or in group form. However, for children it is important to introduce the grid for what it is i.e. an assessment of how the individual sees, in this case, the relationships within his family and that everyone will have different answers because people see their relationships differently. There

are no wrong answers, and their parents want them to feel able to answer as honestly and openly as they can. For children responsive to finding the "right answer" for teacher or susceptible to anxiety over family disloyalty in making some negative evaluations of their family relationships, such assurances are important.

The younger a child is, the greater the possible need for concrete sorting materials as there is a greater likelihood of reading difficulties occurring. So for those that require it, cardboard cut-outs representimg individuals within the family can be manipulated by the child with researcher assistance to demonstrate the existance of constructs. The cut-off line for children requiring such assistance is approximately seven to eight years of age (Brierley, 1967). Constructs chosen for presentation must be ones which the child can place meaning on. If chosen from the literature on similar groups, the elements must be within the range of convenience of the constructs. That is, the children children must be able to apply those constructs to the relationship elements in their families. Careful checks of meaning must be made. If children are unclear what a particular construct means, then ascertaining if a family version of that construct exists is possible by asking siblings what construct X means in their family. Checking the degree to which children use the "don't know" category is another form of checking what sense the children can make of the grid.

On the question of grid analysis, the same principles

operate as with adults. It is the construction and application of them that requires greatest care. However, the interpretation of childrens' grids always requires care, as much for the previously mentioned issue of clarity of construct meaning to children as for the degree of complexity in the application of a particular construct and therefore the ability to use it to differentiate between elements. Salmon argues for the necessity of an analysis of structure revealing underlying conflicts of meaning. Use of INGRID and DELTA provides such an anlaysis.

Applebee (1976) used one hundred and forty-four children aged six, nine, thirteen and seventeen to investigate the degree of differentiation among nineteen supplied constructs and nine elicited elements in responses to stories presented to the children. Applebee concluded that young children had a tendency to use extreme grades on a five point rating scale and to use a relatively small number of constructs to discriminate among elements. With age, children perceive more shades of grey in their evaluations. Essentially the same amount of organization of grids existed at all ages as reflected in the size of the first principal component. In older groups this represented moderate variation on larger numbers of constructs, while for the younger subjects it tends to repesent more extreme variation on a lesser number.

Hypotheses

Evidence presented so far suggests that interactions

have reciprocal effects and that to study problems of aggressive children requires the study of family interactions, perceptions of each other and available supports for family members. Childrens' perceptions of marital harmony and family relationships are indicators of the emotional support and respect for their individual actions within defined limits as they gradually mature. Low child self-esteem has been found to relate to parent-child conflict. If parental authority is legitimized in childrens' eyes it needs to be associated with child perceptions of fairness and reasonableness and adult preparedness to adapt to individual and family developmental needs. Consequently several hypotheses have been generated to investigate perceptions of family interactions held by children.

Hypotheses 1.

It has been pointed out that aggressive children live within aggressive home environments (Patterson, 1975). From this it is hypothesised that children coming from families whose parents report problems of child aggression will perceive higher overall levels of coercion within their families when compared to the reports from children whose parents report a presence of highly socialized children.

Hypothesis 2.

Parents in dysfunctional families can be poor observers of their childrens' behaviour and frequently do

not track childrens' deviant behaviour until it reaches an amplitude or frequency where child management becomes exceedingly difficult (Duck, 1981; Patterson and Reid, 1970; Patterson, 1979). As a result the labelling of children can be inaccurate and capricious (Reid, Taplin and Lorber, 1983; Lutzker, 1980). It is hypothesised that irrespective of which children are labelled as "aggressive" within aggressive families:-

A. No difference will exist in the degree of perceived coercively and co-operatively associated constructs reported by target and nearest-age children.

B. Children will perceive themselves using higher levels of coercively associated constructs and lower levels of co-operatively associated constructs than their counterparts in families of highly-socialized children.

C. Parents in such families will be perceived as using more coercively associated constructs on their children than families with highly socialized children.

Hypothesis 3.

Reid, Taplin and Lorber (1983) in a study of distressed-abused, distressed non-abused and non-distressed families discovered a statistically unreliable tendency for mothers and fathers in the distressed non-abusive sample to direct more aggression at each other than did their counterparts in non-distressed families. The purpose of hypothesis three is to explore that observation. Thus it is hypothesised that parents of aggressive target children

will be perceived by their children as directing more coercion at each other as measured by the increased presence of coercively associated constructs and the reduced presence of co-operatively associated constructs.

Hypothesis 4.

In light of research which suggests that families in general underate the influence of fathers on families (Lamb, 1980) it is hypothesised that children in both family groups will demonstrate a lower awareness of fathers' compared to mothers' influence. This will be indicated by fathers' perceptions of child directed coercively and co-operatively associated constructs being closer to a mean of three (don't know) on the Likert scale compared to mothers' evaluations of their child-directed constructs.

METHOD

1. Subjects and materials.

From the forty-two participating families all children over the age of seven years were asked to complete the Family Relationship Grid. (Appendix 2.6)

2. Procedure.

The grids were adminsistered to the children at the end of the laboratory activities shared with their families. The children were taken to a separate room and given explanations and examples of how to use the grid. It was also explained to them that their parents knew of the tasks they were completing and wished them to answer as truthfully as they felt able to. Only eleven of the thirteen constructs used by the parents were given to the children. Two were rephrased to simpler language; "ignores" became "not interested in my ideas", and "affectionate" was altered to "loving". The elements list was shortened to evaluate each direction of the mother-father, mother-child and father-child dyads, giving a total of six elements. If constructs were not understood, other children in the family were asked how the family used that construct and gave examples of family usage. Because families ranged over two to four offspring, for purposes of statistical comparison it was decided to only analyse the grids of the target children and the sibling nearest in age to them (at least seven years old) within each family. Thus a total of

seventy-eight children evaluated their family relationships, twenty-one aggressive target children and sixteen siblings, and twenty-one non-aggressive target children and twenty siblings. While all target children were between the ages of seven years and twelve years and eleven months, siblings' completing the grid ranged in age from seven to fifteen years in the highly-socialized group with a mean of 10.6 years. In the aggressive group sibling ages ranged from seven to fifteen years with a mean of 10.0 years. For those finding the pen-and-pencil task too abstract an exercise there was opportunity to use cardboard figures representing different dyads with the researcher to make the task easier. The same five-point rating scale as that used by their parents was used by the children for grading elements or individual constructs. The grid was compiled into booklet form with each relationship graded against each construct before the exercise was repeated with the next construct so that children had less chance to impression manage.

RESULTS

The grid results will be presented in two sections. Firstly, in Section 1, data relevant to target and nearest-age children in families with aggressive children will be presented, followed by their counterparts in families with highly-socialized children. Within this section descriptive data from the INGRID analysis for each group of children will be presented and the within-family differences between the targets and siblings will be obtained from the DELTA analysis. That applies for both family groups and salient results of construct-to-construct and element-to-construct comparisons will be given along with principal components analysis to determine major dimensions of intra-familial construing. Section 2 will consist of between-family type comparisons where the results from DELTA analysis will be used to present interactions relevant to target-to-target child and nearest-age siblings-to nearest-age siblings comparisons.

The consensus grids obtained from SERIES analysis were made available for INGRID analysis. The construct means obtained were then submitted to DELTA analysis.

Section 1.

1. Families with aggressive children.

A. Consensus grid for target children. INGRID.

The greatest variation in the application of constructs across elements occurred with the construct

SCARED OF. It correlated 0.98 with GIVES INTO and -0.92 with LOOKS AFTER. Children were seen as SCARED OF their parents, principally their fathers. Fathers were seen as neither GIVING IN TO nor SCARED OF anyone in the family.

The most salient relationships as indicated by the sums of squares for elements were the reciprocal relationships between mothers and children, and how children responded to fathers. The greatest relationship distances were between how the children behaved towards their parents compared with how their parents responded to them in turn. Greatest dissimilarity seen was in how children and fathers responded to each other. Reference to Table 6.1. and Figure 6.1. illustrates how fathers were perceived as LOOKING AFTER target children but neither TRUSTING, SCARED OF, nor GIVING IN to those children.

Mothers were seen as LOVING their target children, but also as neither TRUSTING nor UNDERSTANDING them. Target children saw themselves as SCARED OF, GIVING IN, FORGIVING, and TRUSTING towards their parents, especially their fathers, while doing nothing to LOOK AFTER them. Parents were seen as neither CROSS nor HURTING with each other, and mothers as NOT LOVING to their partners, and fathers as NOT FORGIVING of their wives.

The principal components analysis shows the first three components accounting for 94.1% of observed variance. Appendix 6.1 indicates the loadings of elements and constructs on those three components.

Table 6.1. Relations between constructs and elements expressed as cosines for aggressive target children. Consensus Grid.

Construct 1 with element											
1	-0.738	2	-0.061	3	-0.164	4	0.885	5	-0.606	6	0.667
Construct 2 with element											
1	0.065	2	0.584	3	-0.930	4	0.717	5	-0.877	6	0.781
Construct 3 with element											
1	-0.856	2	-0.792	3	0.470	4	0.449	5	0.111	6	0.339
Construct 4 with element											
1	0.194	2	-0.129	3	0.686	4	-0.890	5	0.782	6	-0.874
Construct 5 with element											
1	-0.795	2	-0.684	3	0.357	4	0.591	5	0.040	6	0.227
Construct 6 with element											
1	-0.628	2	-0.627	3	0.237	4	0.562	5	-0.367	6	0.647
Construct 7 with element											
1	0.578	2	-0.402	3	0.584	4	-0.711	5	0.502	6	-0.572
Construct 8 with element											
1	0.165	2	-0. 615	3	0.790	4	-0.751	5	0.987	6	-0.844
Construct 9 with element											
1	0.201	2	-0.516	3	0.673	4	-0.773	5	0.987	6	-0.861
Construct 10 with element											
1	-0.451	2	-0.803	3	0.760	4	-0.275	5	0.849	6	-0.511
Construct 11 with element											
1	-0.114	2	-0.342	3	0.683	4	-0.252	5	0.001	6	-0.023

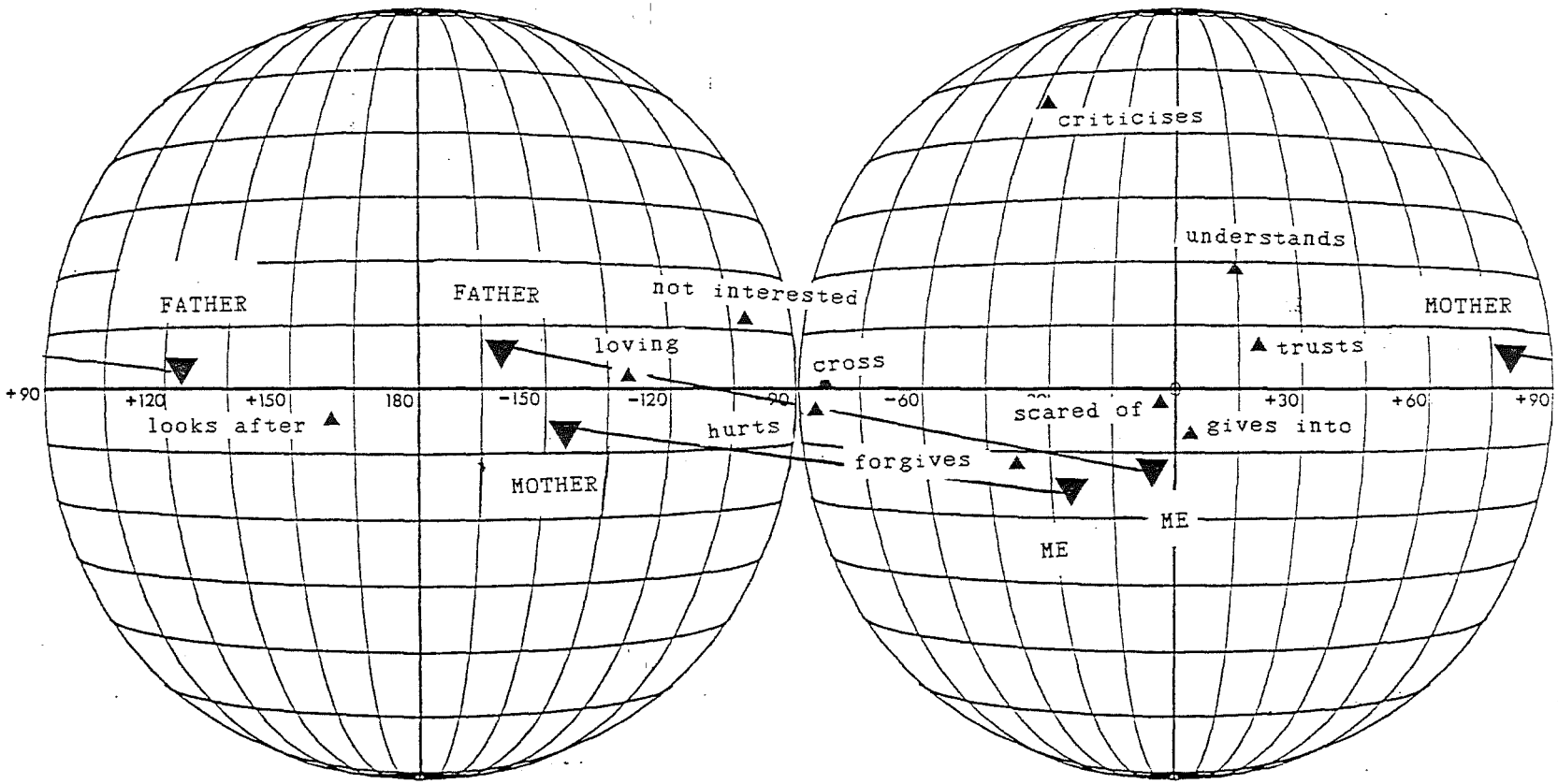

Fig. 6.1 Composite diagram for components 1, 2, & 3 for Aggressive target children Consensus Grid

▲ indicates the position of the constructs

▼ indicates the position of the elements

Component one. (62.2% of variance)

Positive pole	Negative pole
Elements	
3. Target(A) to mother	4. Mother to target(A)
5. Target(A) to father	6. Father to target(A)
	2. Father to mother
Constructs	
8. Scared of	2. Looks after
9. Gives in to	
4. Trusts	
10. Forgives	

The two poles contrast in that they describe either outward directed relationships from target children to their parents or inward directed relationships which children perceive themselves to be receiving from their parents.

Component two. (26.3% of variance)

Positive pole	Negative pole
Elements	
1. Mother to father	4. Mother to target(A)
2. Father to mother	3. Target(A) to mother
	6. Father to target(A)

Constructs

4. Trusts	3. Cross
2. Looks after	4. Hurts the feelings of
	6. Not interested in my ideas
	10. Forgives
	1. Loves

From these results it appears that target children perceive the same coerciveness in their relationships with their parents as parents described in their relationships with the target children in earlier chapters. Clear differences exist between how target children and parents treat each other and between how parents treat each other. However, the presence of several co-operative constructs, even though to a lesser extent than is the case for coercive constructs, indicates perception of less isolation for target children within their families than was the case when their parents' perceptions were analysed.

B. Consensus grids for nearest-age siblings. INGRID.

For these children the greatest variation in the application of constructs across elements occurred with the construct GIVES IN. As with their target siblings they associated it highly (0.937) with SCARED OF. Children were seen as SCARED OF their parents, and mothers as moderately AFRAID of their spouses. Nearest-age children described themselves as GIVING IN TO their parents who in turn also GAVE IN TO each other.

The sums of squares for the elements indicates that the behaviours of firstly, fathers, and secondly, mothers, towards their nearest-age children, assumed the greatest salience. Reference to Table 6.2 and Figure 6.2 confirms that these children, like their target siblings, see their fathers as LOOKING AFTER them, but neither TRUSTING, SCARED OF nor GIVING IN. However, they also see their fathers as CROSSER and much more CRITICAL. Mothers were seen as LOOKING AFTER and neither SCARED OF nor GIVING IN TO their children. In return nearest-age children perceived themselves as far more SCARED OF their fathers, less LOOKING AFTER and not CRITICAL of them either. With their mothers they describe themselves as FORGIVING, TRUSTING and GIVING IN TO. Parents were seen as INTERESTED IN EACH OTHERS IDEAS and neither CROSS WITH nor CRITICAL of each other. Fathers were seen as NOT LOVING and mothers as neither LOOKING AFTER nor TRUSTING. Mothers were also seen as FORGIVING towards and NOT HURTING their spouses.

The first three principal components account for 94.8% of observed variance with 77.2% associated with component one. Appendix 6.2 indicates the loadings of the constructs and elements on those three components.

Component one. (77.2% of variance)

Positive pole	Negative pole
Elements	
3. Nearest-age(B) to mother	4. Mother to nearest-age(B)
5. Nearest-age(B) to father	6. Father to nearest-age(B)
1. Mother to father	
2. Father to mother	
Constructs	
9. Gives in	11. Criticises
4. Trusts	2. Looks after
8. Scared of	3. Cross
	5. Hurts
	6. Not interested in my ideas.

The two poles are contrasted by elements largely defining either outward or inward directed relationships between the children and their parents. The inward directed elements of parents to nearest-age children appear more related to coercive constructs. As with their target children siblings, nearest-age children perceived relationships with their parents as coercive.

C. Differences in consensus grids. DELTA.

From the construct means submitted to DELTA analysis, in it can be seen in Table 6.3 that four of the eleven constructs were found to have group means differing at least at the .05 level of significance when submitted to correlated t-test analysis. Nearest-age children described

Table 6.2. Relations between constructs and elements expressed as cosines for nearest-age siblings of aggressive target children. Consensus Grid.

Construct 1 with element											
1	-0.668	2	-0.848	3	0.172	4	0.421	5	0.088	6	0.306
Construct 2 with element											
1	-0.817	2	-0.450	3	-0.492	4	0.957	5	-0.846	6	0.831
Construct 3 with element											
1	-0.931	2	-0.836	3	-0.528	4	0.918	5	-0.571	6	0.903
Construct 4 with element											
1	0.817	2	0.666	3	0.812	4	-0.836	5	0.515	6	-0.893
Construct 5 with element											
1	-0.751	2	-0.569	3	-0114	4	0.908	5	-0.698	6	0.596
Construct 6 with element											
1	-0.973	2	-0.766	3	-0.494	4	0.797	5	-0.307	6	0.754
Construct 7 with element											
1	0.412	2	0.545	3	0.526	4	-0.186	5	0.007	6	-0.601
Construct 8 with element											
1	0.688	2	0. 413	3	0.495	4	-0.924	5	0.941	6	-0.848
Construct 9 with element											
1	0.452	2	0.329	3	0.584	4	-0.771	5	0.961	6	-0.854
Construct 10 with element											
1	0.701	2	0.509	3	0.771	4	-0.487	5	0.116	6	-0.690
Construct 11 with element											
1	-0.687	2	-0.788	3	-0.349	4	0.820	5	-0.782	6	0.936

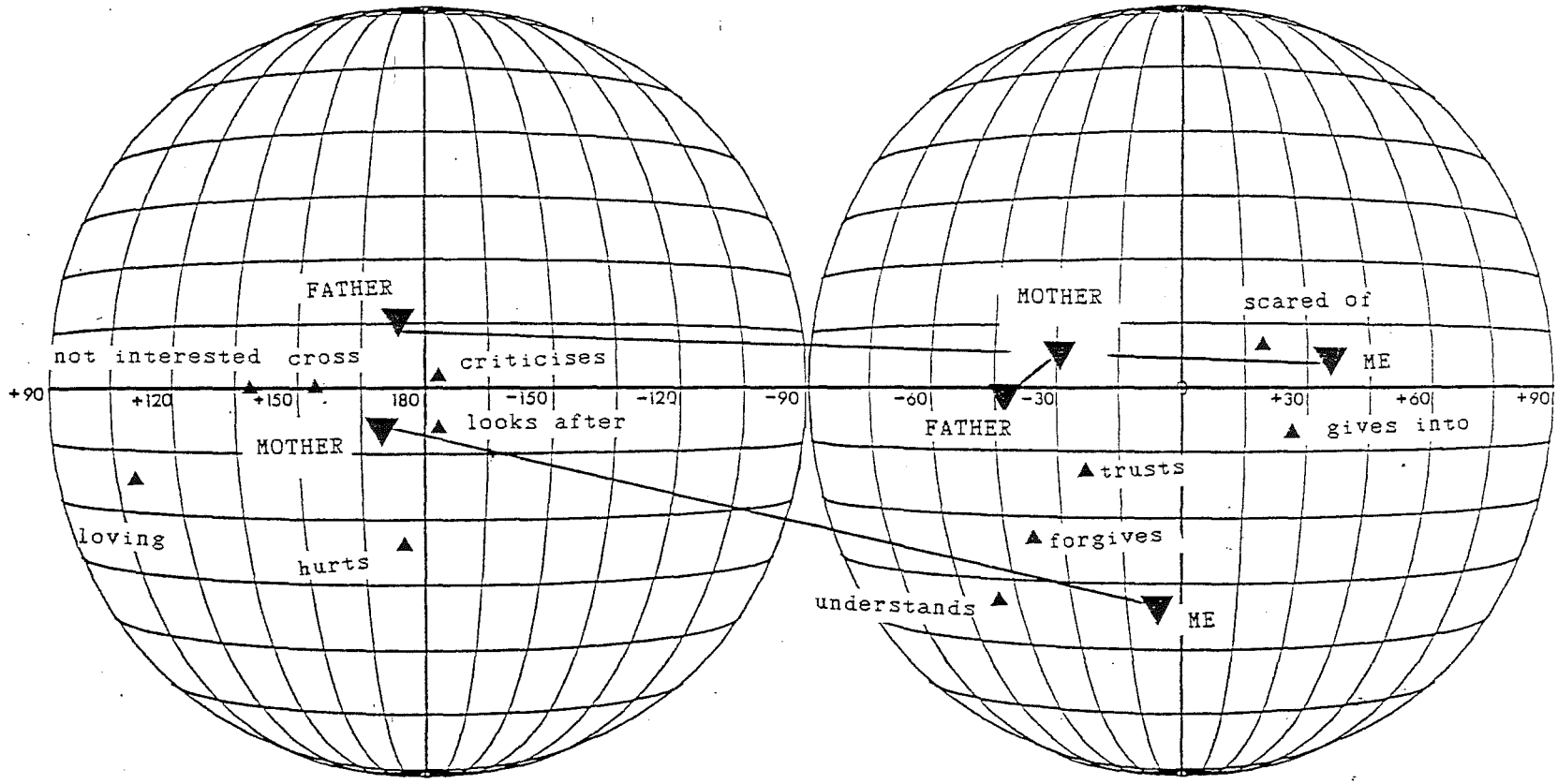

Fig. 6.2 Composite diagram for components 1, 2, & 3 for nearest aged siblings of aggressive target children. Consensus Grid

▲ indicates the position of the constructs

▼ indicates the position of the elements

Table 6.3. Differences in the application of constructs between aggressive target children and their nearest-age siblings. DELTA.

	Construct	Nearest-age children mean	variation	Target children mean	variation	t	significance
1	Loving	4.587	0.098	4.440	0.101	2.291	.05
2	Looks after	4.272	0.793	4.088	0.696	1.412	N/S
3	Cross	3.553	0.649	3.573	0.778	0.192	N/S
4	Trusts	4.448	0.577	4.342	0.642	1.280	N/S
5	Hurts	2.458	0.381	2.898	0.414	6.569	.001
6	Not interested in my ideas	2.202	0.246	2.185	0.274	0.226	N/S
7	Understands	4.220	0.013	4.100	0.211	1.455	N/S
8	Is scared of	1.510	0.215	1.930	1.718	2.461	.05
9	Gives into	2.950	1.082	2.975	0.539	0.312	N/S
10	Forgives	3.530	0.110	3.917	0.284	0.219	.005
11	Criticises	2.877	0.858	2.763	0.207	0.687	N/S

Table 6.4. Within family differences in the perceived use of coercion and co-operation from children to their parents - Targets and siblings compared.

		Target		Nearest		
		X	SD	X	SD	
A. COERCIVE BEHAVIOURS						
(i)	Aggressive families					
	Children to mothers	2.901	0.516	2.651	0.644	N/S
	Children to fathers	2.785	0.595	2.627	0.889	N/S
(ii)	Highly-socialized families					
	Children to mothers	2.263	0.537	2.000	0.630	xxx
	Children to fathers	2.448	0.315	2.016	0.552	x
B. CO-OPERATIVE BEHAVIOURS						
(i)	Aggressive families					
	Children to mothers	3.989	0.617	4.083	0.517	N/S
	Children to fathers	4.032	0.437	4.094	0.375	N/S
(ii)	Highly-socialized families					
	Children to mothers	4.236	0.597	4.369	0.435	N/S
	Children to fathers	4.263	0.454	4.193	0.450	N/S

x $p < 0.05$
xx $p < 0.005$
xxx $p < 0.001$

more LOVING, and target children more HURT, SCARED OF and FORGIVENESS in their families. However, the general level of correlation of 0.64 suggests a moderately high agreement was attained by children on the comparative attribution of each construct to the separate element relationships. Correlations of 0.83 and above were obtained on constructs TRUSTS, HURTS, SCARED OF and GIVES IN. Lowest correlations were for the attribution of the constructs FORGIVES (-0.11) and UNDERSTANDS (0.19) across the relationships.

The principal components analysis of the grid of differential changes shows that the first three components accounted for 88.8% of total variance due to differences between the two consensus grids.

Component one. (accounting for 49.6% of total variation.)

	Positive pole	Negative pole
Elements		
	2. Mother to father	5. Me to father
	6. Father to me	3. Me to mother
	4. Mother to me	
	1. Mother to father	
Constructs		
	1. Loving	8. Scared of
	9. Gives into	11. Criticises
	2. Looks after	3. Cross with
		10. Forgives
		5. Hurts the feelings of
		7. Understands
		4. Trusts

The differences between the poles can be explained by referring to the original INGRID analysis of each Consensus grid. Nearest-age children perceived less LOVE from their parents and considerably less LOVE from mothers to fathers. They also saw parents GIVING IN more to each other especially when compared with target childrens' perceptions of their fathers as GIVING IN moderately little. While both groups felt their parents LOOKED AFTER them, nearest-age children were more affirmative of this. Target children saw fathers as only moderately LOOKING AFTER mothers while nearest-age children perceived mothers as doing very little LOOKING AFTER of fathers. At the negative pole target children appeared more SCARED OF their mothers while nearest-age children appeared considerably less CROSS and less CRITICAL of both parents.

Component two. (Accounting for 26.7% of total variation.)

Positive pole	Negative pole
Elements	
6. Father to me	1. Mother to father
4. Mother to me	2. Father to mother
Constructs	
10. Forgives	11. Criticises
4. Trusts	2. Looks after

Major differences in the second component were related to both groups but especially nearest-age children perceiving their parents as being not CRITICAL to each other.

Table 6.4 demonstrates that when the five coercive

constructs of CROSS, HURTS, NOT INTERESTED IN MY IDEAS, SCARED OF, and CRITICISES and the six co-operatively associated constructs of LOVING, LOOKS AFTER, TRUSTS, UNDERSTANDS, FORGIVES and GIVES INTO are formed into two separate construct groupings, then there are no significant differences in the perceptions of the children in their own application of these constructs within the family. This supports Hypothesis 2(A) that irrespective of who is labelled as the aggressive problem by parents, children within the family will perceive themselves as operating similarly.

2. Families with highly-socialized children.

A. Consensus Grid for target children. INGRID.

Greatest variation in the application of constructs across elements occurred with the construct GIVES IN which correlated 0.918 with SCARED OF, 0.910 with FORGIVES, -0.970 with NOT INTERESTED and -0.912 with LOOKS AFTER. Children were seen as GIVING INTO their parents, more so to fathers, while the construct GIVES IN was seen as having no systematic application between parents. The two most salient relationships as indicated by the sums of squares for elements were mothers to target children and target children to their fathers. The most similar relationships were found to be how parents responded to each other and to the target children. Children also saw themselves as responding similarly to both parents. The two most dissimilar were the above mentioned mother to target and

target to father relationships. Generally parent to child and child to parent relationships were seen as very dissimilar. Reference to Table 6.5 and Figure 6.3. illustrates that children perceived themselves as TRUSTING, INTERESTED IN, SCARED OF, GIVING IN and neither CRITICAL nor CROSS towards their parents. As well, they felt UNDERSTANDING and FORGIVING towards their fathers and did even less to LOOK AFTER them than they LOOKED AFTER their mothers.

Parents were perceived as LOOKING AFTER, CROSS, and CRITICAL to their children. They were also perceived as neither TRUSTING, nor INTERESTED in their childrens' ideas, not UNDERSTANDING, FORGIVING or GIVING INTO. Fathers were also seen as not scared of their children.

Mothers were seen as not HURTING their HUSBANDS while fathers had no constructs closely associated with their relationship to their wives and only a moderate association of UNDERSTANDING and NOT HURTING.

The principal components analysis indicates the first three components accounting for 97.3% of observed variation. Appendix 6.3 indicates the loadings of the elements and constructs on these three components.

Table 6.5. Relations between constructs and elements expressed as cosines for highly-socialized target children. Consensus Grid.

Construct 1 with element											
1	-0.183	2	-0.299	3	-0.181	4	0.462	5	-0.334	6	0.275
Construct 2 with element											
1	-0.030	2	0.062	3	-0.881	4	0.921	5	-0.901	6	0.864
Construct 3 with element											
1	-0.445	2	-0.475	3	-0.658	4	0.982	5	-0.809	6	0.937
Construct 4 with element											
1	0.301	2	0.398	3	0.795	4	-0.977	5	0.769	6	-0.916
Construct 5 with element											
1	-0.850	2	-0.533	3	0.690	4	-0.085	5	0.189	6	-0.086
Construct 6 with element											
1	-0.185	2	-0.163	3	-0.794	4	0.959	5	-0.958	6	0.988
Construct 7 with element											
1	0.558	2	0.567	3	0.587	4	-0.944	5	0.707	6	-0.897
Construct 8 with element											
1	-0.371	2	-0. 407	3	0.842	4	-0.677	5	0.920	6	-0.744
Construct 9 with element											
1	-0.039	2	-0.040	3	0.841	4	-0.876	5	0.988	6	-0.948
Construct 10 with element											
1	0.317	2	0.316	3	0.625	4	-0.887	5	0.902	6	-0.980
Construct 11 with element											
1	-0.150	2	-0.303	3	-0.822	4	0.965	5	-0.890	6	0.970

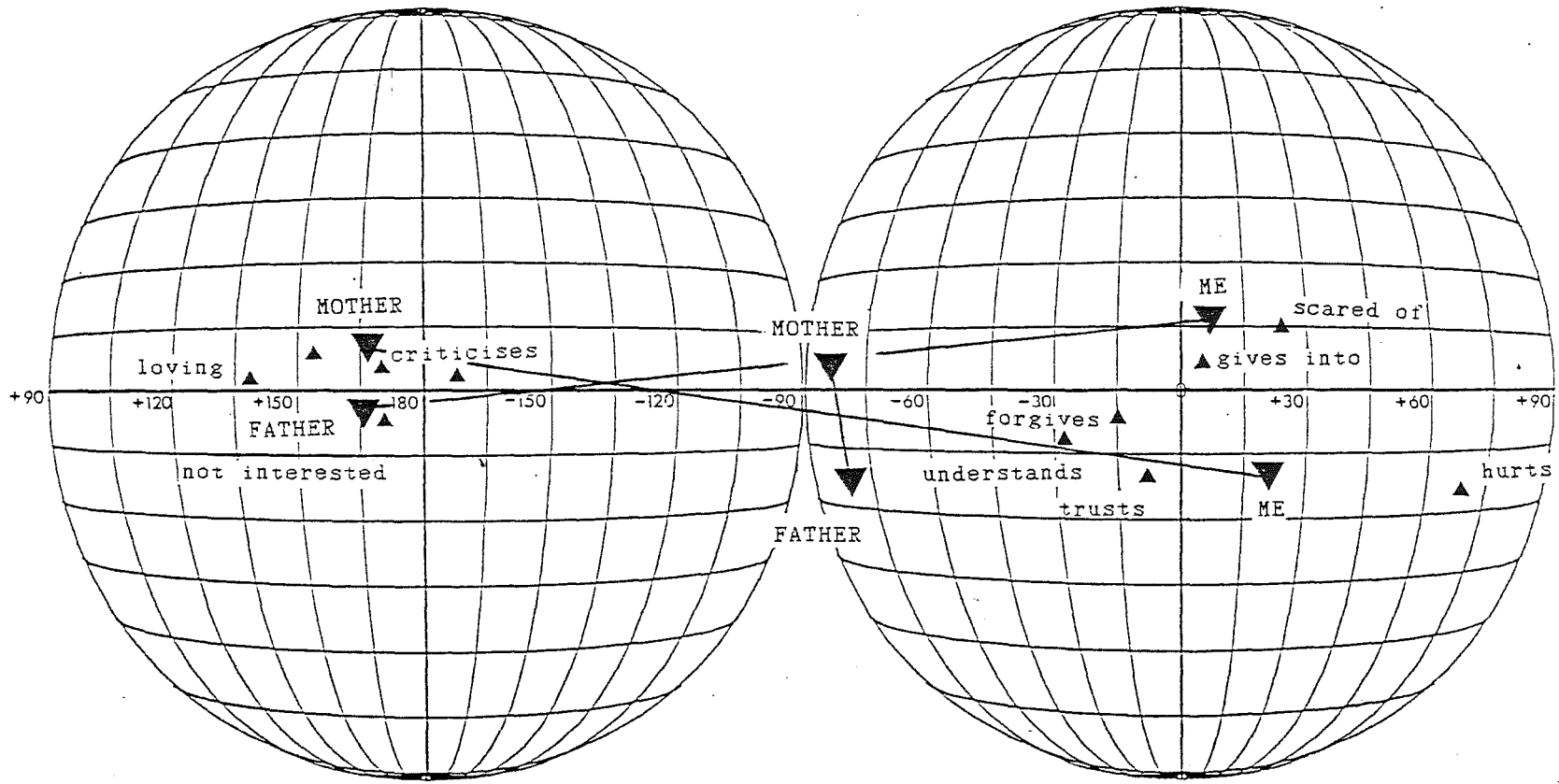

Fig. 6.3 Composite diagram for components 1, 2, & 3 for highly socialised target children

▲ indicates the position of the constructs

▼ indicates the position of the elements

Component one. (Accounting for 79.6% of variation.

	Positive pole	Negative pole
Elements		
	3. Target child to mother	5. Mother to target child
	5. Target child to father	6. Father to target child
Constructs		
	8. Scared of	6. Not interested
	9. Gives in	11. Criticises
	4. Trusts	3. Cross
	10. Forgives	2. Looks after

This component describes perceptions reflecting surprisingly coercive processes, possibly related to gaining of approval or disapproval in the family, considering that these children were described by parents and teachers as highly-socialized and enjoying positive relationships with adults and peers. Component two accounts for 13.8% of variation. The positive pole of this construct reflects the same perceptions of coercive processes with constructs HURT, CROSSNESS and SCARED OF, reciprocated between target children and their mothers, possibly during times of stress, compared to the contrast of UNDERSTANDING and TRUST shared between their parents at the negative pole of the component.

B. Consensus Grid for nearest-age children. INGRID.

Greatest variation in the application of constructs across elements occurred with the construct, GIVES IN, as with their target siblings. It correlated -0.871 with LOVING, -0.853 with NOT INTERESTED IN MY IDEAS and -0.801 with CRITICISES. Again children were seen as GIVING IN to parents, but mothers were perceived as far less GIVING IN to fathers.

The three most salient relationships as indicated by the sums of squares for elements, were fathers and children to each other and the behaviours of the children to their mothers. The most similar relationships were perceived to be those between the parents. Reference to Table 6.6 and Figure 6.4 illustrates that children perceived mothers as being LOVING, and neither HURTING nor GIVING INTO, with fathers being neither CROSS nor HURTING to their spouses. The most dissimilar relationships were identified as mother to father compared with children to each parent. Children were described as GIVING IN, but not LOVING towards their parents, while INTERESTED IN THEIR MOTHERS' IDEAS and NOT CRITICAL of her, and SCARED OF and NOT LOOKING AFTER their fathers. Mothers were perceived as LOOKING AFTER, LOVING and NOT SCARED OF their children, while fathers were more negatively perceived as CRITICAL; CROSS, and neither TRUSTING nor INTERESTED IN THEIR CHILDRENS' IDEAS.

Principal components analysis indicates the first three components accounting for 95.8% of observed variation. Appendix 6.4 indicates the loadings of the

Table 6.6. Relations between constructs and elements expressed as cosines for nearest-age siblings of highly-socialized children. Consensus Grid.

Construct 1 with element											
1	0.777	2	0.360	3	-0.809	4	0.673	5	-0.905	6	0.335
Construct 2 with element											
1	0.678	2	0.422	3	-0.534	4	0.723	5	-0.959	6	0.113
Construct 3 with element											
1	-0.385	2	-0.898	3	-0.133	4	0.367	5	0.024	6	0.829
Construct 4 with element											
1	0.109	2	0.601	3	0.369	4	0.216	5	-0.247	6	-0.803
Construct 5 with element											
1	-0.794	2	-0.891	3	0.445	4	0.336	5	0.353	6	0.283
Construct 6 with element											
1	0.634	2	-0.032	3	-0.931	4	0.183	5	-0.511	6	0.807
Construct 7 with element											
1	0.328	2	0.661	3	0.179	4	-0.252	5	-0.388	6	-0.384
Construct 8 with element											
1	0.582	2	0. 279	3	0.389	4	-0.634	5	0.951	6	-0.202
Construct 9 with element											
1	-0.760	2	-0.009	3	0.933	4	-0.598	5	0.810	6	-0.688
Construct 10 with element											
1	-0.705	2	-0.033	3	0.543	4	-0.104	5	0.321	6	-0.240
Construct 11 with element											
1	0.429	2	-0.336	3	-0.802	4	0.241	5	-0.429	6	0.949

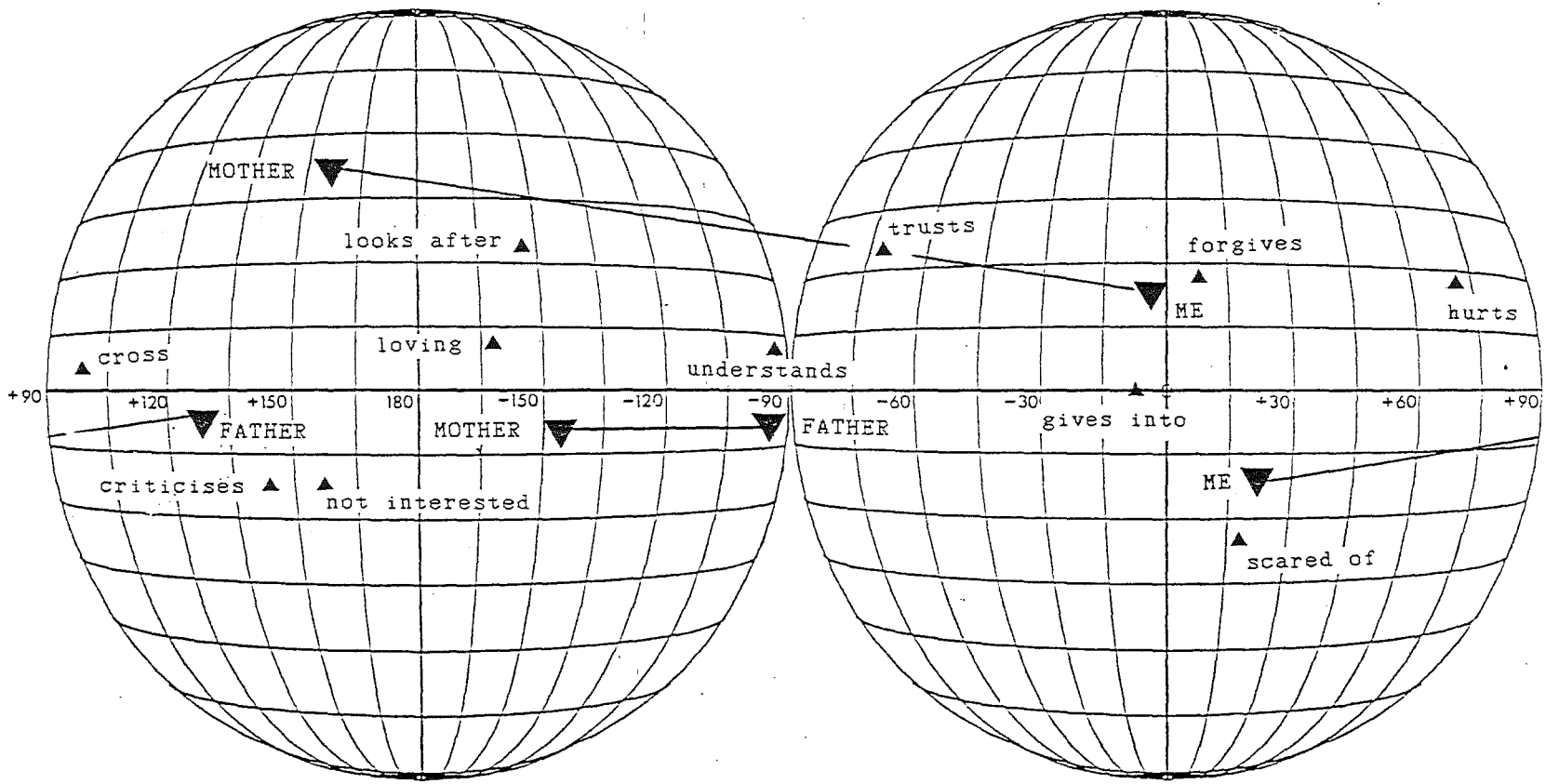

Fig. 6.4 Composite diagram for components 1, 2, & 3. of nearest age siblings of highly socialised children

▲ indicates the position of the constructs

▼ indicates the position of the elements

elements and constructs on these components.

Component one. (Accounting for 55.1% of variation.)

Positive pole	Negative pole
Elements	
3. Me to mother	4. Mother to me
5. Me to father	6. Father to me
	5. Me to father
Constructs	
9. Gives in	2. Looks after
	6. Not interested in my ideas
	11. Criticises
	1. Loves

Component two accounting for 28.6% of variance contrasts the degree of CROSSNESS and HURT received from their fathers to the reciprocal degree of TRUST, LOOKING AFTER and LACK OF INTEREST expressed between father and children.

Component three accounting for 12% of variance describes the reciprocal degree of LOOKING AFTER and HURT between children and mothers at the positive pole with constructs directed to fathers from children and mothers of being SCARED, CRITICAL and INTERESTED. Generally speaking the children (as with the target siblings) were very aware of the coercively associated constructs used in their families, and their perceptions of approval and affiliation are more influenced by their presence, than the presence of more co-operative constructs.

C. Differences between Consensus Grids of highly-socialized target and nearest-age siblings. DELTA.

From the construct means submitted to DELTA analysis it can be seen (Table 6.7) that eight of the eleven constructs were found to have group means differing at least at the .05 level of significance when submitted to correlated t-test analysis. Nearest-age children perceived higher levels in five of the six statistically reliable differences in co-operative constructs, while target children reported higher levels for the only two coercive constructs found to differ significantly between the two groups. However, the general degree of correlation of 0.64 suggests moderately high agreement was obtained by both groups on the attribution of each construct within their families. The four constructs which correlated at least 0.80 in their respective applications were LOOKS AFTER, NOT INTERESTED IN MY IDEAS, SCARED OF and GIVES INTO. No relationship existed in the respective groups' application of FORGIVES within their families, otherwise all other constructs were in the general direction of agreement in application.

The principal components analysis of the grid of differential changes indicates that the first three components accounted for 90.9% of total variance due to differences between the two Consensus Grids.

Table 6.7. Differences in the application of constructs between highly-socialized target children and their nearest-age siblings. DELTA.

		Nearest-age children		Target children			
	Construct	mean	variation	mean	variation	t	significance
1	Loving	4.733	0.079	4.833	0.008	2.030	.05
2	Looks after	4.650	0.269	4.492	0.337	2.539	.05
3	Cross	2.957	0.245	3.008	0.422	0.594	N/S
4	Trusts	4.818	0.062	4.567	0.498	2.023	.05
5	Hurts the feelings of	2.333	0.295	2.275	0.384	0.745	N/S
6	Not interested in my ideas	1.702	0.211	2.017	0.408	4.507	.001
7	Understands	4.358	0.062	4.150	0.155	3.309	.005
8	Is scared of	1.292	0.072	1.350	0.500	0.639	N/S
9	Gives into	3.063	0.606	2.808	0.812	3.217	.005
10	Forgives	4.105	0.022	3.942	0.132	2.255	.05
11	Criticises	1.975	0.133	2.292	0.387	3.817	.005

Component one. (Accounting for 62.3% of variance.)

	Positive pole	Negative pole
Elements		
	3. Me to mother	4. Mother to me
	5. Me to father	6. Father to me
	1. Mother to father	
Constructs		
	11. Criticises	4. Trusts
	3. Cross	8. Scared of
	6. Not interested in my ideas	10. Forgives
		7. Understands
		9. Gives into

To further explain these differences it is necessary to refer back to the INGRID analysis of each group. Target children perceived themselves as LESS CRITICAL and IGNORING of their fathers and considerably LESS CROSS to both parents than nearest-age children perceived themselves to be. Nearest-age children saw their mothers as more TRUSTING, while target children saw parents as LESS FORGIVING, LESS UNDERSTANDING and LESS GIVING INTO. This component appears to define the reciprocal relationships between parents and children as they influence affiliation within the family. It appears that target children were more aware of the coercive processes within their families. This is supported by Table 6.4 which illustates that target children perceived themselves as using more coercion on their parents than nearest-age children perceived themselves to use.

Component two accounting for 18.1% of variance is defined at the positive pole largely by the degree of GIVING IN, and to a lesser extent, FORGIVENESS and UNDERSTANDING shown towards mothers by children. It is defined at the negative pole by the amount of HURT, INTEREST, TRUST, LOVE and SCARED OF from children and mothers to fathers. Nearest-age children perceived themselves as MORE HURTING, LESS LOVING and CONSIDERABLY LESS TRUSTING towards their fathers. They perceived their mothers as MORE LOVING towards, but LESS INTERESTED IN, their spouses ideas.

Component three accounting for 10.5% of variance between the Consensus Grids is largely defined by constructs utilised by children towards their fathers, and to a lesser extent, by parents' responses to their children in terms of the constructs HURT and CROSS. The negative pole is defined by the reciprocal parental relationship and the amount of SCARED, LOOKS AFTER, and LOVING present. Nearest-age children perceived themselves MORE HURTING towards their fathers, and target children as CONSIDERABLY LESS CROSS to fathers. Parents were perceived by both groups of children as LOOKING AFTER each other, especially mothers to fathers in the eyes of nearest-age children. Nearest-age children also described their mothers as MUCH MORE LOVING to their spouses.

Section 2.

3. Inter-family comparisons

A. Differences in consensus grids of target children.

DELTA.

Eight of the eleven group construct means listed in Table 6.8 for the consensus grids of target children submitted to DELTA analysis were found to differ at least at the 0.05 level of significance. Four of the five coercive constructs and only one of the co-operative constructs were rated by aggressive target children as having a higher mean presence in their families. Three of the co-operative constructs and none of the coercive constructs were rated by highly-socialized target children as having a higher mean presence in their families. Again the general degree of correlation of 0.69 is moderately high indicating general agreement in the application of constructs across relationships. The four constructs which correlated by at least 0.89 in their respective applications were LOOKS AFTER, TRUSTS, GIVES IN and SCARED OF. There was a -0.21 correlation in the application of the construct CRITICAL OF. Otherwise all other constructs were in the general direction of agreement.

The principal components analysis of the grid of differential changes indicates that the first three components accounted for 93% of total variance due to the difference between the two consensus grids.

Table 6.8. Differences in the application of constructs between aggressive and Highly-socialized target children. DELTA.

	Aggressive Targets		Highly-socialized Targets			
Construct	mean	variation	mean	variation	T	significance
1 Loving	4.440	0.101	4.833	0.008	7.781	.001
2 Looks after	4.088	0.696	4.492	0.337	6.522	.001
3 Cross	3.523	0.778	3.008	0.422	4.019	.005
4 Trusts	4.342	0.642	4.567	0.498	4.640	.001
5 Hurts the feelings of	2.898	0.414	2.275	0.384	6.274	.001
6 Not interested in my ideas	2.185	0.274	2.017	0.408	1.636	N/S
7 Understands	4.100	0.211	4.150	0.155	0.779	N/S
8 Is scared of	1.930	1.718	1.350	0.500	4.261	.001
9 Gives into	2.975	0.539	2.808	0.812	2.681	.05
10 Forgives	3.917	0.284	3.942	0.132	0.281	N/S
11 Criticises	2.763	0.207	2.292	0.387	3.052	.05

Component One. (Accounting for 56.8% of variance.)

Positive pole	Negative pole
Elements	
1. Mother to father	3. Target children to mother
2. Father to mother	5. Target children to father
4. Mother to target children	
6. Father to target children	
Constructs	
5. Hurts	11. Criticises
2. Looks after	3. Cross
9. Gives in to	8. Scared of
	6. Not interested in my ideas

Comparison of the tables of relations between constructs and elements expressed as cosines in the INGRID analysis of the two consensus grids for target children highlights the differences pinpointed by component one. Aggressive target children see both parents as HURTING, mothers more so than fathers, and both parents as LOOKING AFTER them less. Neither group of children, especially the aggressive children, saw parents as GIVING IN TO them. Fathers were perceived to GIVE IN even less than mothers. Both groups of children, but more noticeably highly - socialized children, perceived their parents as NOT HURTING each other. Interestingly only fathers of aggressive children were seen as LOOKING AFTER their wives, who in turn were seen as the only parent group to at least GIVE IN TO a small extent to their spouses. Fathers of aggressive

children were seen to GIVE IN least of all to their spouses.

Component two. (Accounting for 21% of variance.)

Positive pole	Negative pole
Elements	
3. Mother to target children	1. Mother to father
6. Father to target children	2. Father to mother
5. Target children to father	
Constructs	
10. Forgives	11. Criticises
3. Cross	8. Scared of
5. Hurts	2. Looks after

Component three. (Accounting for 15.7% of variance.)

Positive pole	Negative pole
Elements	
1. Mother to father	2. Father to mother
	3. Target children to mother
	6. Father to target children
Constructs	
8. Scared of	1. Loves
5. Hurts	3. Cross
7. Understands	11. Criticises
9. Gives into	4. Hurts

Referring again to the tables of relation between constructs and elements expressed as cosines for the INGRID analysis of the respective consensus grids, highly - socialized target children saw their parents as CROSSER and

less FORGIVING, but also less HURTFUL towards their children. Mothers of aggressive children were described as more SCARED OF, less CROSS towards, and less LOVING of their spouses than any other parent group. Fathers of highly-socialized children were perceived as less CROSS and less LOVING towards, and more TRUSTING of their spouses. When constructs are grouped into co-operatively associated and coercively associated constructs as in Table 6.9 aggressive target children perceive higher overall levels of inter-parental coercion. This provides support for Hypothesis Three and is consistent with parent research indicating lower marital happiness for parents of aggressive families.

B. Differences in consensus grids of nearest-age children.

DELTA

As indicated in Table 6.10 eight of the eleven group construct means from the two consensus grids submitted to DELTA analysis were found to differ at least at the 0.01 level of significance. All co-operatively associated constructs were given higher mean ratings, four of them significantly, in the families of highly-socialized children. Similarly all coercively associated constructs were rated as having higher mean ratings, four of them significantly, in the families of aggressive children.

The greatest differences in construct applications were with the constructs LOVING (-0.52) and FORGIVING (-0.23). The two constructs with the highest correlations

Table 6.9. Perception by target children of the levels of coercion / co-operation shown by parents towards each other.

(1) Coercive behaviours	Aggressive T X	Aggressive T SD	Highly-socialized T X	Highly-socialized T SD	
Mothers to fathers	2.440	0.501	2.030	0.550	xxx
Fathers to mothers	2.350	0.579	2.060	0.548	xx
(2) Co-operative behaviours					
Mothers to fathers	3.992	0.594	4.208	0.667	xxx
Fathers to mothers	3.900	0.592	4.208	0.660	xxxx

x = .05
xx = .01
xxx = .005
xxxx = .001

Table 6.10. Differences in the application of constructs between nearest-age siblings of aggressive children and siblings of highly-socialized children.

Constructs	Siblings A (1) Mean	Siblings A (1) Variation	Siblings B (2) Mean	Siblings B (2) Variation	T.	Sig.
1 Loving	4.587	0.098	4.753	0.095	1.681	N/S
2 Looks after	4.272	0.793	4.650	0.269	2.858	.010
3 Cross	3.553	0.649	2.957	0.245	7.421	.001
4 Trusts	4.448	0.577	4.818	0.062	3.048	.010
5 Hurts	2.458	0.381	2.333	0.295	1.330	N/S
6 Not very interested in my ideas	2.202	0.246	1.668	0.193	4.773	.001
7 Understands	4.220	0.013	4.358	0.062	3.477	.005
8 Scared of	1.510	0.215	1.292	0.072	3.624	.005
9 Gives into	2.950	1.082	3.063	0.606	0.996	N/S
10 Forgives	3.530	0.110	4.105	0.022	8.011	.001
11 Criticises	2.877	0.858	1.975	0.133	6.480	.001

(1) Nearest-age siblings of aggressive target children.
(2) Nearest-age siblings of highly-socialized children.

in their application to the elements as shown in Table 6.28 were CROSS (0.87) and GIVES IN (0.80).

Principal components analysis indicates that the first three components accounted for 92% of variance between the two consensus grids.

Component one. (Accounting for 59.6% of total variation.)

Positive pole	Negative pole
Elements	
4. Mother to me	1. Mother to father
6. Father to me	5. Me to father
	2. Father to mother
Constructs	
2. Looks after	4. Trusts
11. Criticises	9. Gives into
6. Not very interested in my ideas	8. Scared of
	10. Forgives
3. Cross	

Both groups of children saw their parents as looking after them, but nearest-age siblings of highly-socialized children associated their fathers less with the construct LOOKING AFTER. Mothers in aggressive families were perceived as markedly more CRITICAL than other parents. Differences on the negative pole largely reflected inter-parental relationships. Mothers of highly-socialized children were described as more TRUSTING, less SCARED, less GIVING IN and less FORGIVING to their partners. Both groups of fathers were seen as TRUSTING their wives, but fathers

of aggressive children were seen as MORE FORGIVING, GIVING IN and SCARED OF their wives.

Component two. (Accounting for 20.8% of total variation.)

Positive pole	Negative pole
Elements	
2. Father to mother	5. Me to father
1. Mother to father	3. Me to mother
4. Mother to me	
Constructs	
5. Hurts	1. Loving
3. Cross	6. Not very interested in my ideas
	4. Trusts

Generally parents were seen as neither HURTING nor CROSS to each other, but mothers of aggressive children were associated even less than mothers of highly-socialized children with CROSSNESS to their spouses. Similarly, fathers of highly-socialized children were perceived as less HURTING than other fathers. The negative pole was typified by the outward directed elements of nearest-age children to their parents. Nearest-age children with aggressive siblings perceived far less LOVE from their parents, more INTEREST in their mothers' ideas. Nearest-age children perceived themselves as having less TRUST in their parents.

No significant differences existed in the perceptions

of target and nearest-age children towards their parents, both for coercively and co-operatively associated constructs. However, Table 6.11 indicates significant differences in the perceptions between families. Children from aggressive families perceived higher levels of coercion towards their mothers but less towards their fathers. They also perceived lower levels of co-operation from themselves to their parents. This finding partially supports Hypothesis 2(b).

Similarly, Table 6.11 indicated that children in aggressive families perceived significantly higher overall levels of coercion and lower overall levels of co-operation from their parents to the children. This finding supports Hypothesis 2(c).

Data from Table 6.11 can also be used to discuss the relationship of childrens' perceptions related to the influence of each parent. When the coercively and co-operatively associated constructs from each parent to the target and nearest-age sibling children are compared, the resultant t-test analysis suggests no significant differences in the perceived use of the constructs. Consequently, Hypothesis 4 cannot be supported.

Table 6.11. Differences in the perceived use of coercion and co-operation between adults and children-targets and siblings combined.

COERCIVE BEHAVIOURS	Aggressive T&NS X	SD	Highly-socialized T&NS X	SD	Sig.
Children to mothers	2.776	0.597	2.132	0.660	.005
Children to fathers	2.079	0.761	2.229	0.497	.05
Mothers to children	2.776	0.897	2.206	0.667	.005
Fathers to children	2.694	0.810	2.200	0.645	.001
Mothers to children			2.206	0.667	
Fathers to children			2.200	0.645	N/S
Mothers to children	2.776	0.897			
Fathers to children	2.694	0.810			N/S
CO-OPERATIVE BEHAVIOURS	X	SD	X	SD	
Children to mothers	4.036	0.571	4.302	0.527	.005
Children to fathers	4.063	0.408	4.229	0.453	.05
Mothers to children	3.868	0.676	4.103	0.796	.01
Fathers to children	3.858	0.677	4.081	0.766	.01
Mothers to children			4.103	0.796	
Fathers to children			4.081	0.766	N/S
Mothers to children	3.866	0.676			
Fathers to children	3.858	0.677			N/S

T = Target
NS = Nearest-age sibling

Discussion

1. Aggressive target and nearest-age siblings.

Major findings to emerge from the consensus INGRID of aggressive target children relates to their high awareness of coercive constructs in their families whilst acknowledging the presence of co-operative constructs. This contrasts with the parents' view of their relationships with their target offspring as greatly coercive with little satisfaction given the absence of co-operation. The suggestion here is that the target children involved may not suffer the possible effects of perceived isolation as much as if they had more closely reflected their parents' perceptions of their relationship difficulties. These children saw themselves as receiving some LOOKING AFTER and LOVING from their parents while they were able to feel TRUST and FORGIVENESS towards their parents. While GIVING IN has been defined in analysis as a co-operative construct the high association it has with being SCARED OF suggests that these, and most other children in the study, may have perceived it as part of a coercive process. Parents were seen as being reasonably PATIENT to each other in that they didn't HURT EACH OTHERS' FEELINGS or GET CROSS with one another, but neither were they perceived as particularly warm either. Mothers were described as NOT LOVING their husbands, and fathers as NOT FORGIVING to their wives. This view of the parental relationship was shared by nearest-age family siblings. Parents were described as INTERESTED IN

EACH OTHERS' IDEAS and neither CROSS nor CRITICAL towards each other. Fathers were seen as NOT LOVING, and mothers more negatively in their spousal relationship as having little TRUST IN or LOOKING AFTER their husbands, whilst at the same time NOT HURTING them. Mothers were perceived as being more AFRAID of their spouses. In terms of parenting skills, siblings see their fathers as much CROSSER and more CRITICAL.

For both groups the first principal component was defined at the positive pole by outward directed elements from children to their parents with a mixture of coercive and co-operative constructs. The negative pole was defined by inward received elements from parents to their children which was more marked by coerciveness in siblings' perceptions. It is clear from this that when contrasted with parents' views, nearest-age siblings perceive more coercion in their relationships with their parents. It is quite possible that parents may be overly aware of target-child problems and spend less time and effort realistically evaluating their relationship with nearest-age children. Certainly when a t-test analysis is applied to the data on how children perceive their own use of coercion and co-operation within their families, the target and nearest-age siblings perceive themselves using similar levels of each.

DELTA analysis confirms that while target children perceive significantly more HURT and FORGIVENESS, and nearest-age siblings perceive more LOVE in their families,

overall their perception of coercion and co-operation in their families coincide. Differences revolve around target children being more AFRAID of their mothers, and siblings appearing to express less CROSSNESS, CRITICISM to, and feeling less LOVE from their parents (especially from fathers) when they perceive more overall LOVING within their families. This further supports the suggestion that parents may focus less attention on nurturing the relationships which they perceive as less problematical. Siblings described mothers as less LOOKING AFTER their spouses, but both parents were described as more FORGIVING to each other.

2. Highly-socialized targets and nearest-age siblings

The consensus INGRID for highly-socialized target children reflected the same high association between GIVES IN and SCARED mentioned for aggressive children. However, these children could also associate GIVES IN with FORGIVES suggesting a modifying of the potentially resentment - provoking association of GIVES IN with SCARED OF. Children were seen largely as CO-OPERATIVE towards their parents, who in turn were perceived as being surprisingly coercive with their CROSSNESS, CRITICISM, and lack of TRUST, INTEREST, UNDERSTANDING and FORGIVENESS. These two outward and inward directed sets of elements constituted the opposing poles of the first component describing 79.6% of the total variance. The parental relationship as perceived by target children is unclear. Mothers don't HURT their

spouses, and fathers, at best, were only moderately UNDERSTANDING, and moderately low in HURTING their wives' feelings.

The degree of awareness of coercive processes was surprising from children described by parents and teachers as highly-socialized and so enjoying good relationships with adults and peers. When attention was turned to their nearest-age siblings a similar picture appeared. Children were perceived largely as GIVING IN to parents, who in turn were a mixture of LOVE, LOOKING AFTER, CRITICISM and lacking in INTEREST towards their children. As with their target siblings , the outward and inward directed elements constitute the two poles of the first principal component but account for only 55.1% of the variance.

The DELTA analysis assisted in highlighting differences between the two sets of consensus grids. Nearest-age siblings perceived significantly higher overall family levels in five of the six co-operative constructs with no consistent differences between siblings and target children across the coercive constructs within their families. Further, separate t-test analysis of child to parent constructs indicated that target children perceived themselves utilizing significantly higher levels of coercive constructs to their parents; namely CRITICISM, CROSSNESS and IGNORING.

3. Coercion contrasted between family groups

The question as to whether the awareness of family coercive processes noted in highly-socialized children and their nearest-age siblings is as great as that of the contrast groups in aggressive families was addressed with further DELTA analysis. When target-child groups were compared against each other, aggressive target children perceived significantly higher levels of family coercion across four of the five associated constructs and significantly lower levels of family co-operation across four of the six constructs. The remaining three constructs showed no significant differences. This supports the suggestion that higher overall levels of coercion and lower overall levels of co-operation were perceived by members of aggressive families.

The greatest difference in application of constructs to elements was illustrated in the first component which accounted for 36.8% of the variance between the two consensus grids. The positive pole was defined by the differing degrees of perceived HURT,LOOKS AFTER and GIVES IN between parents and from parents to children. Aggressive target children saw their parents (especially their mothers) as more HURTING and LOOKING AFTER them less. Their parents were described as GIVING IN less to each other.

While parents in both groups were seen as NOT HURTING each other, highly-socialized target children were more aware of the lack of HURT shown to each other. Interestingly, fathers of aggressive children were

described as the only parent group to LOOK AFTER their spouses, whilst at the same time GIVING IN to their spouses least of all. Mothers of aggressive children were perceived as the only parent group to GIVE IN to their spouses. From these results it would appear that highly-socialized target children can be aware of coercive processes within their family similar in kind but to a significantly lower degree to those perceived by aggressive target children. The effects of coercion are ameliorated for highly-socialized children by an accompanying greater awareness of co-operation within their families. Possibly the levels of coercion perceived within families are important in the presence of coercive processes, but per se, may not be the most important factor influencing family relationships. Conceivably smaller levels of coercion may have more profound negative effects in the perceived absence of co-operative constructs.

Again when nearest-age siblings were contrasted against each other through DELTA analysis four of the six co-operative constructs and four of the five coercive constructs were found to differ significantly in the predicted directions. Again children from aggressive families perceive more intra-familial coercion, and less co-operation. The positive pole of the first principal component accounting for 59.6% of the variation between the consensus grids of the two groups indicates the siblings of aggressive target children perceived parents as coercive and lacking INTEREST in them. The negative pole contrasts

the childrens' views of their parents' relationships. Fathers of aggressive children were seen as more SCARED of their wives and, possibly as a consequence, more GIVING IN and FORGIVING. Mothers of highly-socialized children were perceived as more TRUSTING, less GIVING IN and less FORGIVING and less SCARED of their husbands. Highly socialized siblings saw themselves as less CRITICAL but also less FORGIVING and less TRUSTING of their mothers.

When data for targets and nearest-age siblings within each group is combined and contrasted between groups as in Table 6.11 then consistent differences are found. Children from aggressive families consistently perceived themselves using significantly fewer co-operative constructs to their parents. Significantly more coercion was expressed towards mothers of the same group but, interestingly, highly - socialized targets and nearest-age siblings perceived themselves as directing significantly more coercive constructs towards their fathers. What is not clear is the degree to which these coercive constructs become overt behaviour or stay as affective processes. Aggressive children also perceived higher levels of coercive constructs and lower levels of co-operative constructs in the behaviour directed towards them from their parents. However, contrary to the speculation raised in Hypothesis 4, targets and nearest-age sibling children in both groups appeared as aware of the coercive and co-operative constructs used by fathers when contrasted to those used by

mothers. This contrasts with the lower awareness of the outward directed relationships from fathers to their children, which was shown by both husbands and wives in their consensus grids. The implications are that fathers are obviously salient individuals to their children but, sadly, may underate both the effects of their involvement and underinvolvement.

Support has been provided for the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1.

Children coming from families reporting problems of child aggression perceive higher overall levels of familial coercion compared to children coming from families reporting the presence of a highly-socialized child.

Hypothesis 2(a).

Target and nearest-age chilldren in families reported by parents to contain aggressive target offspring do not perceive significant differences in the presence of familial levels of co-operatively and coercively associated constructs.

Hypothesis 2(c).

Parents in families reporting aggressive offspring were perceived by their target children as using more coercion than highly-socialized children perceived their parents to use.

Hypothesis 3.

Parents of aggressive children were perceived by their children to direct more coercion at each other than

highly-socialized children perceived their own parents to use.

Partial support was given to Hypothesis 2(b) that children in families where parents report aggressive offspring will perceive themselves utilizing significantly lower levels of co-operation and higher levels of coercion. The exception being that highly-socialized children perceive themselves displaying significantly higher levels of coercive constructs to their fathers.

Hypothesis 4. was not supported.

The repertory grid has indicated its usefulness in the study of family perceptions held by children. The range of constructs used was selective and incomplete, they were also not totally "personal". However, data could be treated on the bases of individual constructs or the grouping of data. In both circumstances differences were found to exist between groups which were statistically significant. From these findings inferences can be made as to the psychological significance to the children involved.

Little use has hitherto been made of the family dyad grid in group research. A number of interesting results have emerged in this study which lend themselves to further hypothesis generation for both group and individual research. This suggests that the family dyad grid offers useful flexibility for greater future use.